

THE WAR IN OUTLINE

1939-1944

Second Edition
The War to
March 31, 1944



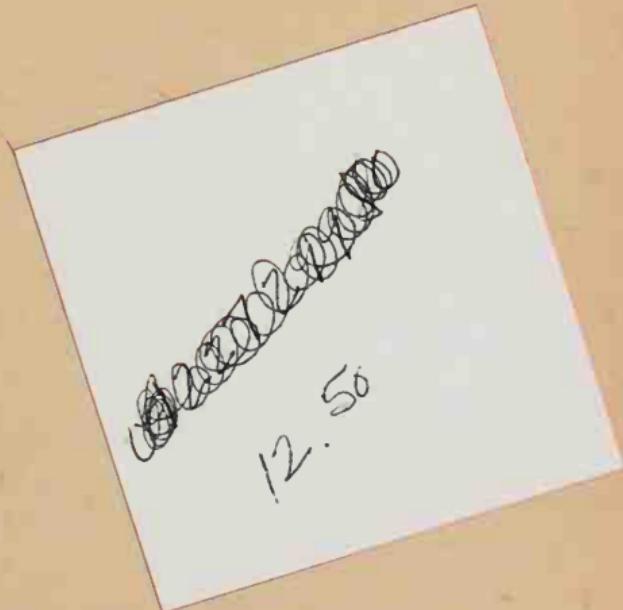
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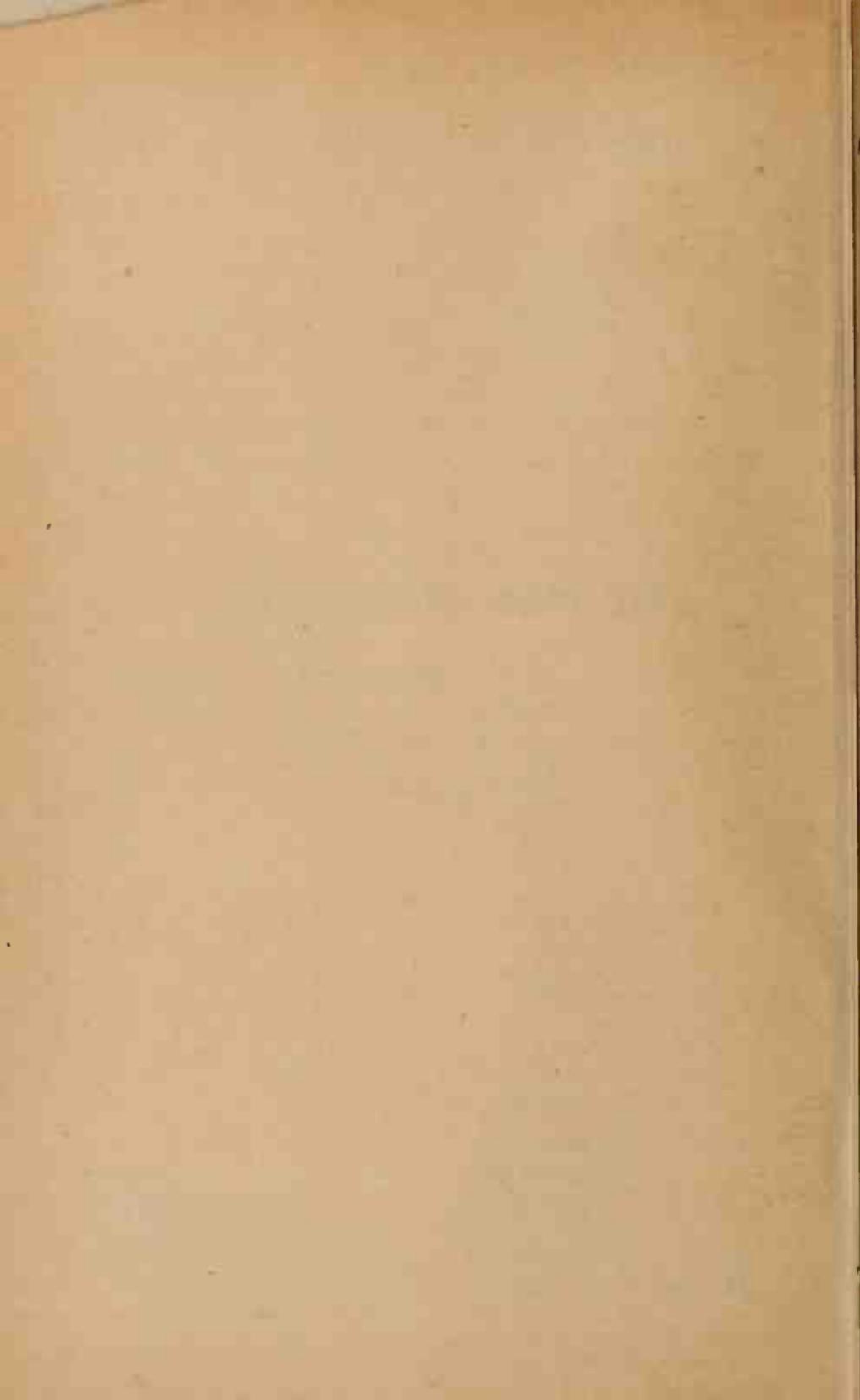
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THE WAR IN OUTLINE





The War in Outline

1939-1944

*Materials for the Use of
Army Orientation Course*



PREPARED BY
THE WAR DEPARTMENT



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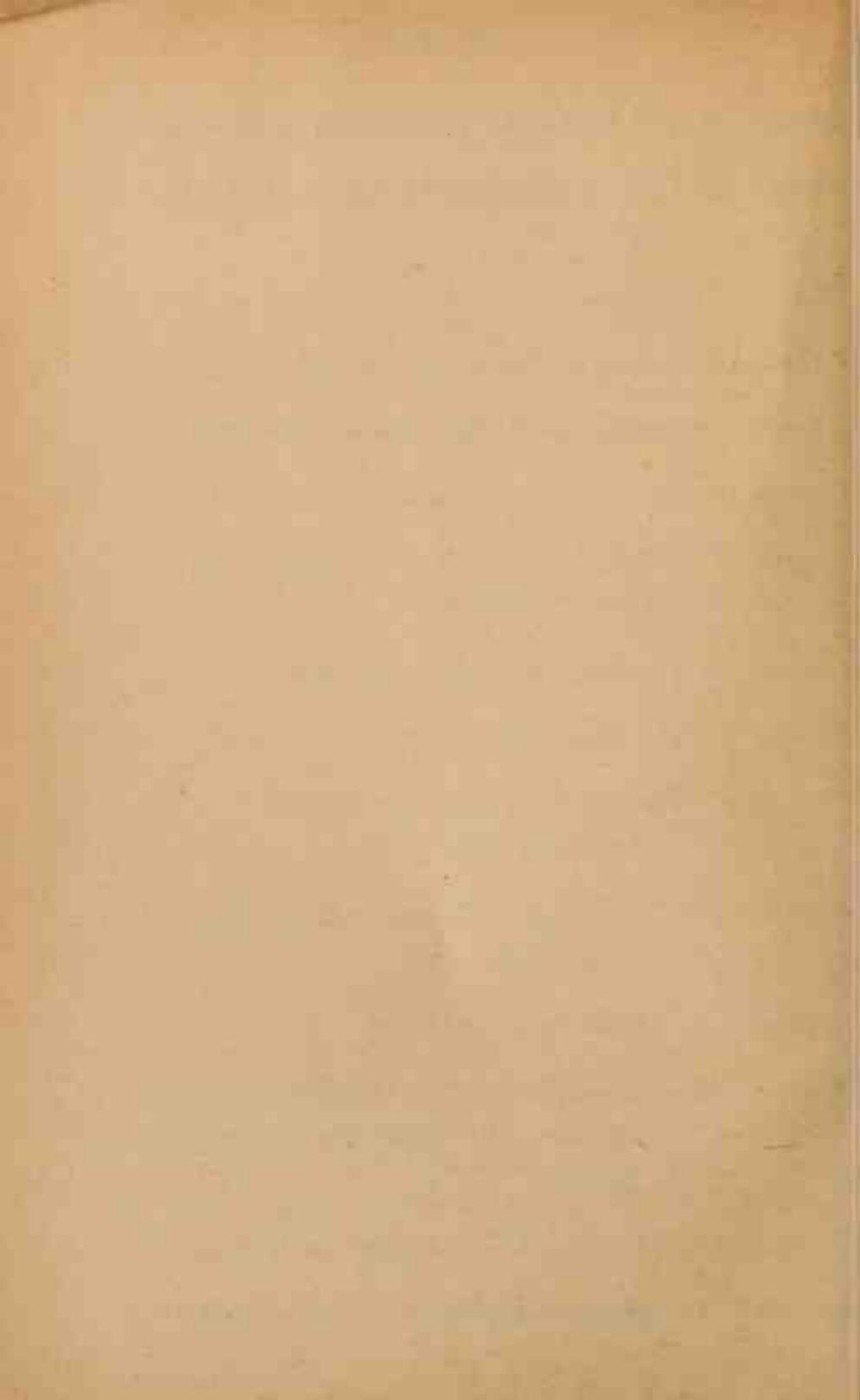
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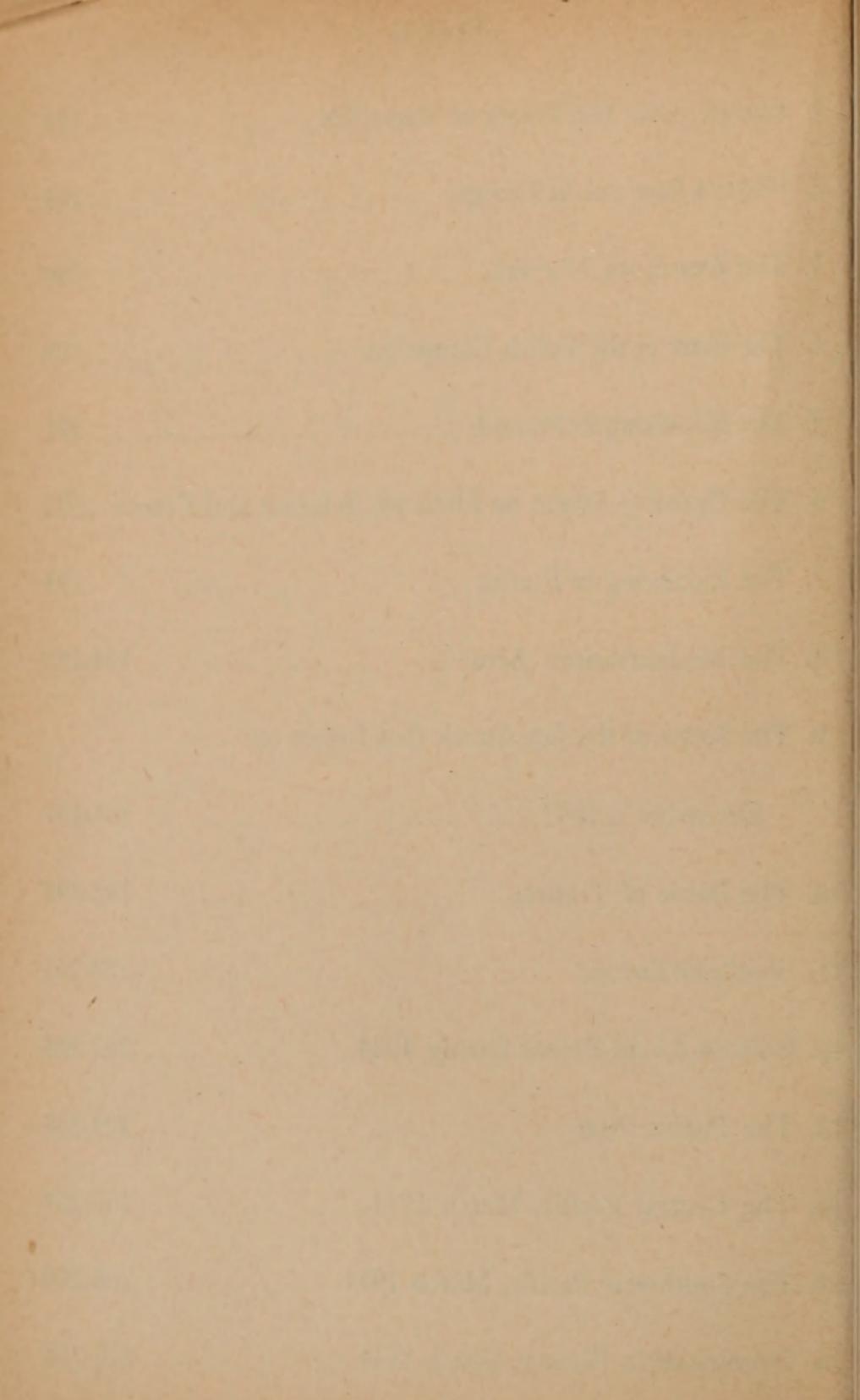
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Preface

GENERAL MARSHALL has stated that a knowledge of the causes and the events leading up to the present war and of the principles for which we are fighting "is an indispensable part of military training and merits the thoughtful consideration of every American soldier." The mission assigned to Army Orientation Course by War Department order of February 9, 1942, is to present these subjects to the Army, together with information on current developments in the international situation.

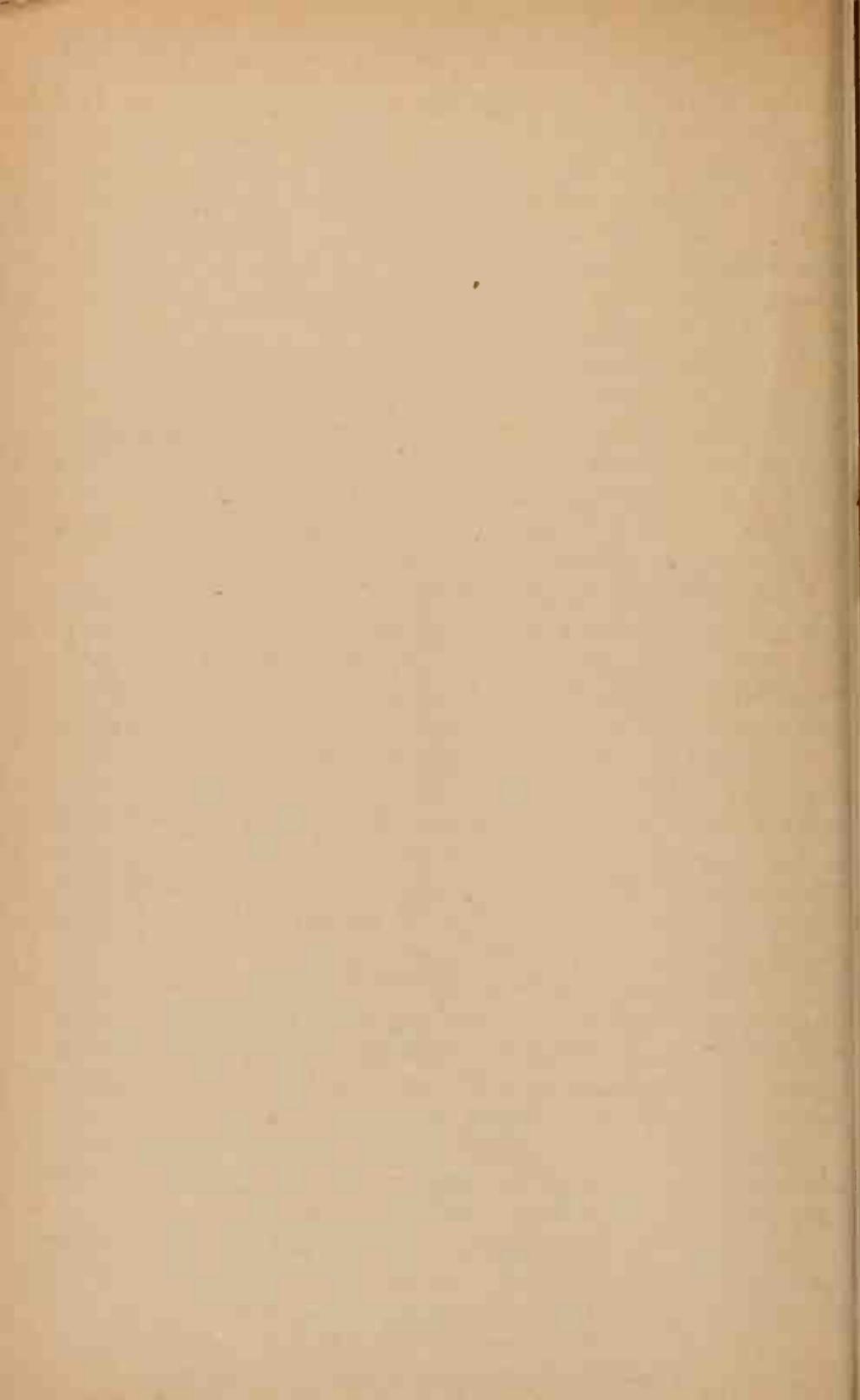
This publication is designed to assist military personnel in discharging that mission. Its facts are presented in outline form to suggest more strongly their integration and their possible organization for presentation to troops in the form of talks, such as figure in Introductory Phase of Army Orientation Course, or in the form of the discussions connected with its Current Phase where company officers have functions assigned.

Since individual speakers or discussion leaders should make their own presentations of the topics assigned to them and use their own words in so doing, the facts are here presented in an abbreviated style and no effort has been made to break up the material into units for talks or discussions. However, these materials can be employed in a variety of ways by those seeking to reach the objectives of Army Orientation Course. For example, the chapter entitled "The Immediate Background of the War" might be used, in part or as a whole, as the basis for an introductory lecture in Introductory Phase. The same use can be made of materials on individual campaigns, e. g., those in Russia, North Africa, or in Pacific theaters. Furthermore, close acquaintance with the contents of these pages will assist those assigned to conduct Current Phase by providing them with background material and with an understanding of military principles and the general military situation which will render their commentaries on *Newsmap* and news bulletins more intelligent and more informing.

Additions to the story of action, observations thereon, and additional subjects pertinent to Army Orientation Course may be added from time to time in subsequent editions.

Every effort has been made to assure accuracy of statement. If, however, errors are detected, information concerning them should be sent to: *Army Morale Services Division, A.S.F.*

*Orientation Branch
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THE WAR IN OUTLINE



Chapter 1

The Immediate Background of the War

Axis Actions September 1931 to September 1939



I. ACTIONS FOR WHICH GERMANY WAS RESPONSIBLE

II. ACTIONS FOR WHICH ITALY WAS RESPONSIBLE

III. ACTIONS FOR WHICH JAPAN WAS RESPONSIBLE

These years were technically years of peace in Europe and Asia.

As a matter of fact, there was no actual declaration of war in China until after Pearl Harbor, and Japan chose to call her all-out attack on China "The China Incident." This made it unnecessary for President Roosevelt to invoke the Neutrality Act. But for China and Japan, war it was, and on a large scale, from July 7, 1937 on.

Yet even before these dates, military action, or the threat of military action was ever present.

Some events were dramatic and startling. Many became familiar to us.

But we need to see them in their time sequence because they were actually milestones on the road to the war which became an evident fact in China on July 7, 1937, in Europe September 3, 1939 and which embraced the United States on December 7, 1941.

We can see this movement toward war more clearly if we follow the events for which the members of the Berlin-Rome-Tokyo Axis were responsible.

For the sake of clarity it is best to follow the actions of each separately.

But note the points at which Berlin and Rome and Tokyo coordinated.

I. ACTIONS FOR WHICH GERMANY WAS RESPONSIBLE

These actions were taken at the direction of Adolf Hitler,

who became Chancellor of the German State January 30, 1933.

This man had a clear view of his distant objective.

He was determined from start to make Germany the dominant state in the world.

He saw just as clearly the succession of steps he had to take to reach his objective.

He knew enough about his fellow Germans and about Europe and the world to handle many situations successfully.

Before January 30, 1933, Hitler had made himself chief of the National Socialist (Nazi) party. He had stopped at nothing to get that post. The party stopped at nothing in its effort to gain control of Germany.

By constant purposeful agitation he had made that party dominant in the German state.

From 1933 to 1939 he had moved by successive steps to make Nazi Germany the dominant state in Europe.

(There is no point in declaring that he planned every detail in advance. Hitler is no miracle man. It is more accurate to state he took advantage of every opportunity to get ahead.)

The Attempt on Austria 1934

In July 1934, he tried to grab Austria, then an independent state.

He failed because Mussolini supported the cause of Austrian independence.

German Rearmament 1935

Hitler went at it again in March 1935, although in another direction.

He announced that Germany was building submarines.

He told the world that Germany had reestablished military conscription.

He transferred the German civil air fleet to military control.

A year earlier he had established the Nazi Motor Corps.

This was the first major step towards a fully motorized and mechanized Army.

Nazi Germany was publicly rearming.

She was openly doing what had been done secretly since

1919, when the German militarists first began to plan for a return to power.

Occupation of the Rhineland 1936

March 7, 1936, was a big day for Hitler.

He denounced the Locarno Treaty which, freely signed by Germany in 1925, had guaranteed the eastern frontiers of France and Belgium.

He also ordered German troops into the zone 25 kilometers east of the Rhine which had been demilitarized by Treaty of Versailles (1919).

These troop movements, coupled with the full rearmament begun in 1935, and with the renunciation of the Locarno Treaty, constituted a clear threat to France along whose frontiers the growing German army was stationed.

Hitler's actions likewise threatened the general peace.

They were taken without regard for the rights of other nations or for solemn treaties.

No world, present or future, can live in peace unless means are found to enforce those contracts between nations which we call treaties.

The democratic states especially were imperilled, but they failed to act forcefully to prevent the Nazi actions.

They may have been deceived by Hitler's assertion that the Nazis needed a prolonged period of peace to carry through domestic reforms.

More probably, both leaders and peoples were engaged in wishful thinking.

They loved peace so much themselves that they were convinced that not even a Nazi Führer would break it.

They were unwilling, as peace loving peoples often are, to face unpleasant realities which might demand military action.

Of all this Hitler was aware—all these things were part of his estimate of the situation—as he moved toward his great objective, taking advantage of any and every opportunity that offered or that he could himself create.

More actions inevitably followed, since Hitler was dynamic and was obsessed with his fixed ideas that Germany must expand and that she could expand without opposition.

The Anti-Comintern Pact 1936-1937

On October 24, 1936, the formation of the Rome-Berlin Axis was announced.

On November 25, 1936, Germany and Japan signed the Anti-Comintern Pact, to which Italy became a party on November 6, 1937.

Germany and Italy were pledged to consult and collaborate on matters of mutual interest, and all three parties promised to combat the ideas of Soviet Russia.

The opposition of Berlin, of Rome and of Tokyo to the Soviets was stressed by the signers.

Some people in the democracies cheered, although no democratic powers accepted the invitation to join.

The Bolshevism of the Soviet Union was unpopular, although it was being rapidly modified in the direction of a quasi capitalist regime (*e. g.* a modified wage and price system was inaugurated.)

The democracies failed to see that this apparently defensive agreement against the U. S. S. R. was the basis for the Berlin-Rome-Tokyo Axis, a combination which threatened states other than the Soviet Union with offensive action.

Intervention in Spain 1936

Hitler intervened, with Mussolini, in Spain in 1936.

A total of about 45,000 Nazis and 175,000 Fascists served the Spanish Dictator (Franco). The Germans, chiefly technicians, were shuttled in and out of Spain, 5,000 at a time.

Spanish battlefields were used as testing grounds for new German weapons (planes and tanks), and the new tactics of machine warfare.

This action had the further purpose of extending Nazi influence in the Iberian peninsula—an area of critical importance in Europe and in the Mediterranean region.

Recognition of Italy's Seizure of Ethiopia 1936

In keeping with his recent treaty Hitler recognized Mussolini's conquest of Ethiopia.

By so doing he provided more cement to bind the diplomatic associates together.

N. B.—The United States never recognized this conquest because it was clearly the result of aggression.

The German Four-Year Plan 1936

Within Germany Hitler inaugurated "The Four Year Plan." Heavy industry was expanded and converted to the production of munitions for the new mechanized army. Auto roads were developed to speed the movement of troops and of supplies. They were engineered with the military purpose in mind, and were to prove a major factor in the swift success of German operations in 1939-1940.

The Austrian Anschluss 1938

1938 saw further major actions on the part of Hitler.

He moved against Austria.

Where he had failed in 1934, he now succeeded.

In February Hitler put the Austrian Chancellor (Schuschnigg) under pressure, and forced him to admit Nazis into his Austrian Cabinet.

On March 11, 1938, he moved Nazi motorized troops across the Austrian frontier and landed others by air at the Vienna airport.

There was no Italian support for Austria this time because Hitler had so consolidated his power that Mussolini was no longer disposed to oppose it. He confirmed his role as the Axis junior partner.

The Anti-Comintern Pact and the recognition of the Italian Empire of Ethiopia were beginning to do their work.

Moreover, a Fifth Column existed within Austria to aid the invaders.

Anschluss (union of Austria with Germany) became a fact.

On February 20, 1938, Hitler had told his Nazis and the world "Over ten million Germans live in two states adjoining our frontiers. It is in the interest of the German Reich to protect them."

He had brought 7 million Austrians into the Nazi fold. What of the other 3 million?

The Sudeten Crisis—Munich Conference 1938

The other 3 million Germans the Führer had promised to "protect" lived in the western fringe of Czechoslovakia.

Hitler was well prepared to act for their "liberation," and for the further extension of German territory.

His own people were enthusiastic at the acquisition of Austria without cost.

A Fifth Column under Konrad Henlein had been organized among Sudeten Germans in Czechoslovakia. A useful base for military threat or action had recently been obtained in Austria (on the Southern frontier of Czechoslovakia).

The Anti-Comintern Pact and Soviet uncertainty about the attitude of the democracies kept the U. S. S. R. from coming to the active defense of Czechoslovakia.

German troops and fortifications were on the western frontier of France.

France, although pledged to support the Czechs, was confused and vacillating.

Her attitude was essentially defensive (Maginot Line), and the situation demanded action beyond French frontiers.

The British government (Chamberlain) was either unwilling or unable to see the growing menace to peace, and unprepared for war.

Britain's military and naval outlook was, like that of France, essentially defensive. Their military forces were not ready.

The Czech was thus isolated.

Nazi Germany, on the other hand, was placed on a war footing.

Hitler acted.

He roused German emotions by picturing the torture of Sudeten Germans by villainous Czechs.

He centered German hopes for revenge in himself by promising to end the sufferings of their blood brothers.

On September 29, 1938 he brought about the Munich Conference.

Hitler (Nazi), Mussolini (Fascist), Daladier (France) and Chamberlain (Britain) met together.

The two latter hoped to secure peace by a bargain giving the Sudetenland to Hitler.

They trusted wishfully in Hitler's assertion (September 26,

1938) that once the problem of the Sudetenland was solved, Germany had no more territorial claims in Europe.

Britain and France allowed Hitler to take over western Czechoslovakia—an area which included fortifications built for defense against Germany.

Hitler's grip on his German people was tremendously strengthened by this latest low cost success.

His position in Europe was improved by his gain of strategic territory.

Many in Europe were alarmed by his methods, and by the extent of Nazi Germany's growth.

Americans were even more alarmed than Europeans.

But more, who feared the costs of action to block Hitler's ambitions, found comfort in his latest assertion: "We have but one wish—to make our contribution to the general peace of the world."

Hitler was here using his familiar smoke screen.

Actually he was determined to go forward, taking advantage of any and all opportunities, towards his ultimate objective—dominion over Europe and the World.

The Seizure of Czechoslovakia 1939

Opportunities for such a movement were plentiful in 1939.

1. The Munich Settlement's terms were stretched by Hitler to let the Nazis grab more Czech territory.
2. Poland and Hungary were encouraged by Hitler to loot other parts of the Czech state.
3. The Czech President, Hacha, was forced to accede to Hitler's demands, and to make his country a Nazi "protectorate." Hitler entered Prague.

This was Hitler's last peacetime achievement.

He had made great gains—at no cost except an increase of alarm in other states.

1. The industrial establishments of Czechoslovakia (e.g. the Skoda munitions works which specialized in heavy tanks) were added to the resources of the Nazis. Tanks of Czech design were soon to appear in Poland and France with German crews. Slovakia was to swing over to the German side.

2. The Czech population was doomed to work as slaves for Hitler's "master race."
3. A base for further action by the Nazis was also provided. (Czechoslovakia lay along Poland's southern frontier.)

Summary

A quick summary shows the extent of Hitler's major achievements January 1933-September 1939.

1935: He rearmed Germany.

1936: He remilitarized the Rhineland.

Made treaties with Italy and with Japan.

Intervened in Spain.

Inaugurated the Four-Year Plan.

1938: He seized Austria.

Seized Sudetenland as result of Munich.

1939: He made Czechoslovakia a Nazi "protectorate."

Nazi rule was steadily extended in these years at the cost of the independent and freedom loving people of Austria and Czechoslovakia.

The rule of the Gestapo and of Gauleiters (Nazi political chiefs) in the seized territories showed Europe and the World the fearful consequences of Nazi victory.

II. ACTIONS FOR WHICH ITALY WAS RESPONSIBLE

Italy's actions were determined by Benito Mussolini.

He became Italy's Dictator on October 30, 1922.

He had seized power with the aid of his "Black Shirts," and declared that he "stood triumphant over the dead body of Liberty."

In the years which followed he lived up to this assertion.

He ended the democratic liberties of Italians.

Eventually he trampled on other people's liberties too.

Domestic Developments

For 10 years after 1922 Mussolini used his powers as Duce for domestic purposes.

1. To perfect his hold on Italy, he eliminated his opponents ruthlessly.

Gangster methods "liquidated" the leaders of the opposition. Both concentration camps and outright murder were vigorously employed.

2. To strengthen Italy's resources Mussolini brought about a great increase in Italy's wheat production, and brought industry and labor under government control.

Imperial Ambitions

But Mussolini had to give Italians who had lost their liberties something else to think about.

He talked loudly of the size and importance of the ancient Roman empire.

He suggested to Italians that under Il Duce an Empire of similar extent and importance would again be ruled from Rome. Italy already had the small beginnings of such an Empire.

1. Fiume (at head of Adriatic).

2. Aegean Islands. (Dodecanese and Rhodes.)

Both were useful advance bases for a move into the Middle East.

3. African Colonies.

Libya (North Africa). Eritrea and Somaliland (northeast Africa).

Mussolini improved his hold on all these areas, and in some cases (Fiume, Dodecanese, Libya) enlarged their territories during the years 1922-1935.

The Conquest of Ethiopia 1935-1936

In 1935 Mussolini created an opportunity further to enlarge his imperial properties.

On October 3, 1935 Il Duce's troops invaded Ethiopia (on frontiers of Eritrea and Somaliland) on the pretext of border outrages by Ethiopians.

This constituted a clear cut act of aggression in breach of the arbitration treaty of 1928 between Ethiopia and Italy.

The European democracies tried to hold Mussolini back.

But, as in dealing with Hitler, they feared war, and failed to back their words with sufficient force to carry their point. Their unpreparedness was a chief deterrent.

Addis Ababa (capital of Ethiopia) was occupied by Il Duce's legions on May 5, 1936.

Victor Emmanuel, King of Italy, gained the additional title of "Emperor of Ethiopia."

But the real ruler of Italy and of Ethiopia alike was Il Duce. It was the same Mussolini who

Established the Rome-Berlin Axis in this very year of 1936.

Got recognition of his conquest of Ethiopia from Hitler, but not from the United States.

Gave aid, with Hitler, to Spanish Fascists from July 1936 onward until the end of the Spanish War.

The Conquest of Albania 1939

In 1939 Il Duce created a second opportunity for imperial expansion.

In Italian hands Albania would guarantee Fascist control of the Adriatic.

Italy had earlier got control of the finances and the army of Albania.

Now, in the spring of 1939, the Italian dictator declared that the Albanians were guilty of bad faith and of outrages against Italians.

He added that his "patience was exhausted."

He must, therefore, act in defense of his honor and of his injured people.

Good Friday (April 7) was chosen as the day for action.

The Italians invaded suddenly from the sea and from the air. The Albanians lacked military defenses.

Albania was added to the growing Empire of Mussolini.

In spite of his exploits in Ethiopia and in Albania, Mussolini's ambitions and dreams were far from satisfied when war broke out in Europe September 1, 1939.

In 1939 the Fascists in Italy were clamoring for Nice, Corsica, Savoy, and Tunisia.

III. ACTIONS FOR WHICH JAPAN WAS RESPONSIBLE

Hitler, with the consent of the German people, had determined the moves of the Nazis towards their objectives.

Mussolini had begun to build an Italian Empire on the dead bodies of Italian, Ethiopian, and Albanian liberties.

Japan's actions, however, were the work of a military clique rather than of any individual.

Hard-boiled generals and admirals had contrived to destroy such power as popular government possessed in Japan.

They seized power and exercised it in the name of the "heaven-born" Emperor.

They dishonored their own treaty obligations.

(Treaties are important international documents which must be respected by all their signers if there are to be peace and security in world of nations.)

Japan's Treaty Obligations

Japan had promised to observe three major treaties.

1. The Nine Power Pact.

Produced by the Washington Conference of 1921, it guaranteed China's independence and integrity.

2. The Four Power Pact (Japan, France, Britain, U. S.).

The signers of this further product of the Washington Conference of 1921 promised to respect one another's properties in the Pacific area.

3. The Pact of Paris.

This instrument, developed in 1928 on the initiative of Secretary of State Kellogg and French Foreign Minister Briand, was designed to outlaw war as an instrument of national policy.

We, in the United States, liked these treaties because we felt that they guaranteed peace. Also, they encouraged disarmament.

Watch and see what the Japanese did to these three treaties as they moved towards their chosen objectives.

Japanese Ambitions

The Japanese objectives, like those of Germany and Italy, were imperial in extent.

In 1931 they were thinking in terms of Japanese supremacy in the Western Pacific.

They already possessed bases for the extension of Japanese power.

1. The Islands of Japan (home base).

2. Properties on Asiatic mainland.

Korea, definitely acquired in 1910.

The peninsula of Liao-Tung (Port Arthur), won in 1905, as result of the Russo-Japanese War.

Economic rights (railways and mines) in the Chinese province of Manchuria.

3. Island possessions, especially—

Formosa and the Pescadores, taken from China in 1895.

Pacific Islands (e. g. Marianas and Carolines) acquired as mandates in 1919.

From the time of their acquisition all these outlying territories were developed as bases for offensive military operations.

In 1931 such characteristic operations on the part of Japan were continued with clearer purpose and with increased emphasis.

The Mukden Incident 1931

September 18, 1931, was a big day in world history.

The date is that of a little “incident” near Mukden in Chinese Manchuria.

The Japanese *insisted*, but never *proved*, that Chinese guerrillas blew up a section of the Japanese owned railway there.

The action was said to have taken place about 2200 hours, but the train due at Mukden at 2230 arrived on time over the damaged (?) rails.

The Japanese made this “incident” the pretext for their invasion of Manchuria by an army previously massed in Korea.

The Chinese province was overrun, and was speedily transformed into a puppet state which Japanese rechristened Manchukuo.

This action violated the Nine Power Pact of 1921, the Pact of Paris of 1928, and the Covenant of the League of Nations, of which body Japan was still a member.

The League tried to intervene and sent the Lytton Commission to Manchuria to investigate and report. The report of the Commission left no doubt as to the lack of justification for Japan's aggression.

United States Secretary of State Stimson (Secretary of War 1940-) tried to hold the Japanese back and refused to recognize their conquest.

But the Japanese defied Stimson and left the League on May 27, 1933.

(Hitler left the League in October 1933, and Mussolini in December 1937. Neither was willing to submit his actions to the judgment of other nations.)

Sino-Japanese Hostilities 1931-1939

War, undeclared, but none the less war, was waged on China by Japan in the years following 1931.

1. Japan extended her control on the Asiatic mainland 1931-1936 by seizing provinces in North China, e. g. Jehol (pronounced Ru-ho).

2. Further advances were made by the Japanese in 1937.

In spite of Premier Konoye's declaration that "We have no territorial designs and no wish to make an enemy of the Chinese people,"

The area around the old Chinese capital of Peiping was seized.

Shanghai was bombed for the second time (first in 1932), and permanently occupied.

Nanking was taken and sacked.

The U. S. S. *Panay* was bombed from the air and sunk in the course of these operations. The gunboat was clearly marked as American, but was repeatedly bombed.

In the case of the *Panay* Japanese said "it was entirely unintentional."

In the case of the killings and rapings in Chinese cities they said "it was not war, it was merely an incident."

All these actions by the Japanese were very much "according to plan."

Korea served as their base for action in Manchuria.

Manchukuo served them as a base for their assault on the Northern provinces of China.

Shanghai served as a base for their later "coast-creeping policy" seizure of other ports, *e.g.* Foochow and Amoy).

Japanese Plans for the Future

Japanese ambitions were no more satisfied at the beginning of 1939 than were those of Hitler and of Mussolini.

Hitler thought in terms of world dominion.

Mussolini dreamed of ruling over a revived Roman Empire.

The Japanese gangsters thought in terms of a Japan which would possess or control all of East Asia. This would include:

Mainland areas.

China, Indo-China, Malaya, and, possibly, India.

Islands.

Netherlands East Indies, Philippines, and, possibly, the island continent of Australia.

So long as this trio, Hitler, Mussolini, and Japan, thought of the future in such terms further actions on their part, designed to bring them nearer to the objectives, were inevitable.

Chapter 2

German Offensives in Western Europe, 1939-1940



The Situation in September 1939

Germany, under Hitler's direction, had moved toward European dominion in the years 1933-1939.

She had publicly rearmed in 1935 and geared industry to the war machine by the Four-Year Plan of 1936.

She had further improved her military position by remilitarizing the Rhineland (1936), by her seizure of Austria (1938) and Czechoslovakia (1938-1939).

These bases for potential military action, the new army (based on universal military service), the new matériel (Luftwaffe and motorized troops) and the enlarged sources of military supplies all figured in the plans of the German General Staff.

Its plans and, at critical points, its personnel, assured continued emphasis on military principles developed without a break from the pre-1914 period, and placed a modern machine-age army, up to date in its organization and training, at Hitler's disposal.

In the years 1933-1939 Hitler had more than once threatened war in order to achieve his ends, but the irresolute attitude of the democracies had allowed him to carry out his plans without recourse to war.

After completing the seizure of Czech territory in March 1939, Hitler continued Germany's movement toward her declared objectives, taking advantage of every opportunity, and using any available means.

War was not excluded from those means, even if Germany had formally renounced war as an instrument of national policy when she signed the Pact of Paris (Kellogg-Briand Pact) in

1928.

In fact, Nazi Germany had reversed Clausewitz' dictum that "war was the continuation of policy by other (than peaceful) means."

This had implied the subordination of war to policy, and possibly to morals.

In the German Third Reich no regard was paid to morals or ethics, and policy, together with its handmaiden diplomacy, was made to serve a military end.

Hitler Threatens Poland

Hardly had the last provinces of Czechoslovakia been brought under Germany's "protection" when Hitler laid down a barrage on Poland of the usual propaganda type.

For home and for foreign consumption he insisted that Germans, members of the "master race," were being maltreated by the Poles who, being non-German, were inferior cattle.

To impress both Germans and non-Germans he also insisted that Germany was injured by the continued existence of the "Polish Corridor" which lay between West and East Prussia.

This territory was part of the Poland which had been reconstituted by the Treaty of Versailles (1919) on a better base than the paper kingdom of Poland created by Germany and Austria in 1916 in the hope of recruiting a Polish army from a grateful Polish people to fight on the side of the Central Powers.

The Corridor, which had been seized by Prussia in 1772, was returned to Poland in 1919 to give the new state access to the sea.

Within it lay Danzig, a port with a German population, and subject to the control of the League of Nations, and Gdynia, an alternative port developed by the Poles since 1919.

Hitler could not stop until he had fulfilled all the promises he had made to his fellow Germans, and Poland's position was weak.

Moreover, a sure means for him to retain his popularity was to feed Germans on more low-cost successes.

A 10-year Non-Aggression Pact had been signed by Germany and Poland in January 1934, and had been confirmed

by diplomatic conversations as recently as January 1939. As was usual in the case of Axis powers this treaty was no barrier to threats or to acts of aggression.

Hitler did more than lay down a propaganda barrage: he acted. Hitler denounced the Anglo-German naval treaty of 1935 which limited German naval armament.

He also denounced the German Non-Aggression Pact with Poland (1934).

He asked for Danzig and much of the Corridor from Poland, and repeatedly increased the extent of his demands while insisting that "Germany does not dream of attacking other nations."

To further strengthen his position he made a definite military alliance with Italy on May 7, 1939.

The Democracies Abandon Appeasement

The reactions of the democracies to German actions differed radically from those of the preceding years.

The British people knew they were unprepared for war, but demanded that the Chamberlain government drop appeasement in favor of a more resolute policy.

On March 31, 1939, the British Prime Minister announced that Britain and France would aid Poland if her independence were threatened.

Britain and France had affirmed the solidarity of their interests, and pledged their joint resources for their defense, in the preceding February, and on April 6, 1939, Poland formally accepted their promise of aid in case of aggression.

On April 27, 1939, the British Parliament, for the first time in Britain's history, established peacetime conscription.

From May to August Germany was repeatedly told that if she sought to settle the Danzig question alone Britain and France would act in support of Poland.

The King of the Belgians and the Pope urged the use of peaceful measures to effect a reasonable accommodation.

President Roosevelt had declared on January 4, 1939, that "it has become increasingly clear that peace is not assured," had urged that attention be given by the United States to the provision of "adequate defense," and again stated that "this generation of Americans has a rendezvous with destiny."

Now, as the Polish crisis developed, the President wrote Hitler and Mussolini on April 14, 1939, asking assurance that their armed forces would not attack or invade the territories of 30 named states.

Hitler and Mussolini answered the appeal with mockery, threats and the assertion that Axis policy was "inspired by the criterions of peace and collaboration." (April 28 and 30, 1939.)

Again on August 23-24, 1939, President Roosevelt sought to provide for a peaceful settlement of their dispute by appeals to the King of Italy, Hitler and President Mosciki of Poland.

On August 25, 1939, the President again wrote Hitler to the same effect, but in vain.

The Soviet-German Treaty

There was need for all these efforts to preserve peace, notably after August 21, 1939.

On that day it was disclosed that von Ribbentrop (German Foreign Minister) and Molotov (Soviet Foreign Minister) had not merely met and shaken hands in public, but had made a Non-Aggression Treaty binding for 10 years (signed August 23, 1939).

Hitler's denunciation of Soviet communism had been a major device in his rise to power since 1923.

Britain and France had been actively seeking an alliance with the Soviet Union although they had not cooperated with the U. S. S. R. in the Czechoslovakian crisis.

The world, deceived by these actions, had forgotten the working agreement maintained between Germany and the U. S. S. R. since their Treaty of Rapallo in 1922, and registered astonishment at the Soviet-German accord.

The Soviet-German agreement of earlier years was now given a form which removed the danger that Germany would in 1939 be forced to fight a war on two major fronts simultaneously, as in 1914-1917.

On August 25, 1939, Britain and Poland signed a defensive military alliance, and on September 4, 1939, France and Poland became military allies.

The Battle of Poland

Within a week Hitler delivered an ultimatum to Poland in a fashion that prevented an answer being given within the time limit allowed (August 29-30, 1939).

On September 1, 1939, Germany invaded Poland without a declaration of war, just as Japan had invaded Manchuria in 1931, and as Italy had attacked Ethiopia in 1935, and Albania in 1939.

On September 3, 1939, Britain and France declared that a state of war existed between themselves and Germany. (The form of their declaration resembled that which the United States was to use in December 1941.)

Italy took a curious position which Mussolini described as that of Germany's "non-belligerent ally."

She was not at war, but as Germany's working partner she was in a position to favor Germany, which she did by forcing Britain and France to maintain large forces in the Mediterranean area to deal with a potentially belligerent Italy.

Out of her own resources or through her "neutral" ports Italy furnished Germany with supplies of native and foreign origin.

Many in the democracies regarded this situation as proof that the Axis was broken, whereas in reality Italy was playing Germany's game.

Poland felt the full weight of Germany's long-planned blow.

The French Army was stalemated by the existence of the German Westwall, recently rushed to completion.

No fleet could get into the Baltic to aid Poland from the sea. Britain's navy was instantly placed on a war footing and blockaded German ports, but it took time to organize her army and move it to its assigned post in northern France. Neither the French nor the British had a sufficient air force to assist their ally.

The Polish Army possessed a fighting spirit, but lacked modern motorized equipment.

It was good, but not good enough to deal with the German invasion.

The German army possessed great advantages.

1. Numbers.

There were about 70 divisions, many of them armored, on the long frontier of Poland from the Baltic to the Rumanian border.

2. Equipment.

Mechanized equipment, developed on the proving grounds of the Spanish War, was available, but horse transport and artillery had not been neglected, and the Luftwaffe was present in variety and strength.

3. Position.

East Prussia and Pomerania, on Poland's northern flank, served as bases for the separated armies of von Bock's Northern Army Group.

Silesia and recently acquired Slovakia served the Southern Army Group of von Rundstedt in like fashion.

From such positions von Bock was to occupy the Corridor and drive on Warsaw and its rear from the north, while von Rundstedt's four armies smashed at the Polish capital and its rear from the south.

4. Military Concepts.

German military leaders had carried forward the major lessons of World War I in developing their strategy and tactics.

Boldness of thought and action, and a positive belief that, despite the general stalemate which prevailed in World War I, the offensive was the stronger form of war were the principles upon which the German High Command acted and with which it had indoctrinated the officers of the German Wehrmacht.

The Luftwaffe opened the German dawn attack by bombarding Polish towns in a fashion which caused President Roosevelt to ask all combatants to refrain from the ruthless bombing of civilians in unfortified centers of population (September 1, 1939).

By other assaults they struck the Polish Army blind by destroying its slender air forces.

By still others they blasted communications and hampered Polish mobilization.

The Polish Staff had elected to defend the line of Poland's frontier for political reasons, although better terrain for defense lay within it to the east in the area of the Lublin plateau.

German armies pinned the Polish forces to the ground they occupied, separated units by drives of panzer (armored) divisions, and then encircled and annihilated or captured them.

Actions of this sort, in which the coordination of all arms was especially evident, were enacted and reenacted, at times on a small scale, at others on a grand scale, as the campaign progressed.

The Corridor was occupied and the Polish port of Gdynia besieged and reduced after a heroic resistance.

Poland's Posen armies were trapped and destroyed in the valley of the Bzura, about 40 miles west of Warsaw, and the others suffered a like fate south and southeast of the capital.

Warsaw itself was encircled and bombarded from the air as well as from the ground.

Following their established policy of employing terror as a military weapon, the Germans deliberately concentrated the fire of planes and of artillery on the city's residential districts.

This was the first of a series of actions based upon the same military principle (Rotterdam 1940 and Belgrade 1941), but at the time the world failed to observe that ruthless action against civilians in a city already within German grasp was a definite feature of German military strategy.

As the campaign approached its climax the Red Army advanced across Poland's eastern frontier, and occupied territory the greater part of which Poland had seized from the U. S. S. R. in 1919-1920. Its advance began on September 17, 1939.

On September 27, 1939, Warsaw surrendered and, although some of the Polish forces east of the Vistula held out until October 5, 1939, the campaign was over.

In 4 weeks from the opening assault Poland ceased to exist. Germany acquired resources of labor and of materials.

A proud people lost their freedom and were doomed to slavery, or worse, under the victors.

Germany Attacks Denmark and Norway

Victory in Poland and her arrangement with the U. S. S. R. allowed Germany to concentrate her attention elsewhere without any great concern for the situation on her eastern frontier.

Many expected that the western front would immediately become the theater of active operations.

There operations had been largely confined to patrol activities.

People who did not know the dangers and costs of such actions described the situation as "a phony war," or "Sitzkrieg."

Lack of offensive action in the west led some in the democracies to believe that the war was permanently stalemated.

That front did not become active at once, nor did any large scale action develop elsewhere until the first spring of the war.

Then, on April 9, 1940 the German fleet, the German Army and the German Luftwaffe assaulted two genuinely neutral and democratic Scandinavian states.

As usual Germany's Führer offered an excuse.

He referred to Britain's announcement on April 8, 1940, that she had mined Norwegian territorial waters (three miles out from shore) to prevent German naval and merchant craft from using it as a "covered way" to their home bases, via which the valuable iron ore obtained from Sweden could be shipped through Narvik to Germany.

Actually Hitler was set for action before he learned of the new mine fields. The plan had been set months earlier and troops were already concentrated along the Danish borders.

Troops which landed in the north of Norway on April 9, 1940, had to leave German ports nearly a week before the British announcement.

It is another plain fact that Germany had bored into Norway, long before the day of the attack, by developing a Fifth Column there.

(NOTE: This phrase comes from a statement by Franco's General Mola in 1936. He stated that four Fascist columns were advancing against Madrid, which would receive aid

from a "fifth column" of sympathizers within the Loyalist capital.)

Painstaking work had built up the Nazi Fifth Column in Norway out of Norwegian malcontents and German residents.

Now it was provided with detailed directions, among other things:

To get conflicting orders to Norwegian defense forces and so to create confusion.

To deliver apparently genuine orders to forts and ships directing their surrender.

To seize communication centers, *i. e.* telephone exchanges, and so paralyze Norwegian mobilization.

However active the Fifth Column, the swift German success was primarily due to their employment of high velocity tactics.

On April 9, 1940, simultaneous landings were effected at many places (Copenhagen in Denmark; Oslo, Bergen, Stavanger, Kristiansand, Trondheim, and Narvik in Norway).

At all Norwegian points of landing either airborne troops or parachutists figured conspicuously and took possession of all military and commercial airfields in the country.

The use of these fields was, accordingly, denied to Norway and her allies throughout the campaign, and only a few fighter planes could be flown by them from improvised fields.

On the other hand, the airfields were at once available for German use in securing and maintaining air superiority and in strengthening German forces in Norway.

Reinforcements, in many cases, arrived in a stream of transport planes, especially at Oslo where troops were steadily flown in from the Danish airfield at Aalborg, itself one of the German's first prizes.

Since the points attacked in Norway were the termini of the lines of rail and road communications, their instant occupation was a great advantage to the Germans and an equally great disadvantage to the defenders.

Speed marked German actions throughout the brief campaign. Denmark was almost instantly overrun.

In Norway the Kingdom's tiny peacetime army was given no chance to effect a hurried mobilization.

German motorized troops surmounted armed resistance and improvised road blocks, fanned out from their initial landing places and joined hands.

The British navy inflicted heavy losses on German troop convoys in the Skagerrak, but land based planes prevented its continued use of those narrow waters.

French and British expeditionary forces were landed to the north and to the south of Trondheim (at Namsos and Andalsnes) on April 14-17, 1940, at both of which places the lack of port facilities and the presence of the Luftwaffe made the landing of heavy equipment and reinforcements almost impossible.

At Narvik, an ore port in the extreme North, British, Poles, and French forced a landing on April 13, 1940, in the face of stiff German opposition.

But the Allies' effort to take Trondheim was turned back by German speed and German air power. Namsos and Andalsnes were evacuated on May 1-2, 1940, while the troops landed at Narvik were withdrawn by June 9, 1940.

The Germans acquired the following advantages at very low cost:

1. A route whereby Swedish iron ore, carried to Narvik by rail, might follow the sea route to German ports.
2. Naval bases whose possession by the enemy made the maintenance of the Allied blockade of Germany more difficult.
3. Air bases less than 300 miles from the great British naval base and within 500 miles of industrial areas in Scotland. These bases were beyond British fighter range, although well within the flying range of bombers.

The military loss to the Allies was grave, as was their loss of prestige.

But the greatest loss was suffered by Norway whose decent democratic people lost their freedom.

Battles in the West, 1940

Before the Allies withdrew from Narvik the long expected German attack was delivered on the Western Front.

At dawn on May 10, 1940, German armies attacked along the frontiers of the Netherlands, Belgium, Luxembourg, and France.

Along the Maginot Line it was merely a containing action; elsewhere the Wehrmacht advanced.

The situation of those attacked was weak and confused.

1. The Principality of Luxembourg was defenseless.
2. The Dutch had been strictly neutral and counted on inundations, to be effected after the commencement of hostilities, as a major defense factor.
3. The Belgians had, since 1936, been following a policy "strictly and exclusively Belgian," hence neutral and isolated.

They had been reassured by the German promise in 1937 to respect their frontiers, while Belgian military leaders considered that their defense lines along the Meuse River and the Albert Canal were strong.

4. France, with whose armies the British Expeditionary Force had been associated since the outbreak of war, had also built her military strategy about defense positions:

The Maginot Line extending from the Swiss frontier to the region of Montmedy in the north.

Natural obstacles—the Rhine and Meuse Rivers, and the forest of the Ardennes.

The extension of the Maginot Line, in the shape of hurriedly constructed field works, to the west of the Belgian border, from Montmedy to the sea.

It is noteworthy that the military strategy of the Low Countries and of France and Britain was defensive, which partly accounts for the prevalence of a purely defensive attitude on the part of their civilian populations and on the part of their armies as well.

Moreover their several defense plans and their individual defense lines were generally uncoordinated.

It was under such circumstances that the Germans again staged a Blitzkrieg.

The Battle of the Low Countries

The Netherlands resisted for only 5 days.

They were long and terrible days for Dutch soldiers and civilians whose sea frontier was at no point more than 160 miles from the German border.

1. The Dutch air force was smothered as the Germans established the air supremacy that was decisive in the campaign.
2. Complete air superiority allowed the Germans to use several thousand parachute troops to seize Dutch airfields and to destroy the public utilities of cities. It also permitted them to make crash landings of airborne troops on sandy beaches.
3. Some barges proceeded down the Rhine into Dutch territory; others, starting from German ports, landed on the Dutch coast.
4. Road blocks, bunkers, and water defenses failed to stop the onrush of German motorized divisions.
5. The German advance moved at high speed, left the Dutch little time to organize their defense, and prevented the destruction of vital bridges such as the Moerdjik Bridge over the Meuse which the Nazis used to speed their attack on Rotterdam from the south.

On May 14, 1940, the Dutch capitulated.

Pursuing their set policy of *Schrecklichkeit* (frightfulness), the German Luftwaffe systematically destroyed the heart of Rotterdam in an intense bombardment of one and a half hours on that same day, and Robert Ley (leader of the Nazi Labor Front) seized this very moment to tell the world that it was Hitler's "irrevocable mission" to make the world happy, just as he had brought happiness to Germany.

The attack on Belgium prospered exceedingly.

The Belgian Meuse and the Albert Canal were both crossed on the first morning of assault.

The Belgians, with British and French who had rushed to give them aid, were unable to make a decisive stand as they retreated west.

Their retreat, and the forward movement of reinforcements and supplies, was hampered by the deliberate bombing of towns which caused their populations to stream out on the roads to the west. There they were systematically strafed to produce yet greater terror. The Luftwaffe bombed railroads, but left highways untouched so that there would be no hindrance to the advance of German ground forces.

(The Germans had first employed these tactics in the Serbian

campaign of 1915 where their military value had been established to the satisfaction of the High Command.) King Leopold capitulated on May 28, 1940.

The Battle of France

Before that event the German attack on France through Luxembourg and Belgium had gone far.

Within two days from its beginning on May 10, 1940, the Germans crossed the Meuse at Sedan.

The panzer divisions of von Kleist had found the forest tracks of the Ardennes no obstacle, and von Rundstedt's armies poured through the gap at Sedan and widened it steadily.

The situation was clearly critical enough to demand that new Allied chiefs be called in.

On May 10, 1940, Neville Chamberlain gave way to Winston Churchill as British Prime Minister.

All that the new chieftain could offer his countrymen was "blood, toil, tears, and sweat. . . . What is our aim? It is Victory . . . for without victory, there is no survival." (May 13, 1940.)

On May 13, 1940, Reynaud, champion of the offensive, succeeded Daladier as Premier of France, and 5 days later General Gamelin, exponent of the defensive, was replaced by 73-year-old General Weygand as commander of the French armies.

Changes in the French civil and in the military command did not check the German advance.

Penetration of the French Ninth Army's position at Sedan (May 15, 1940) was instantly followed by a race of the attackers west towards the Channel which they reached at Abbeville on May 21, 1940. The road to Paris lay open to the Germans, but they sought to trap the French-British field armies.

Dive bombers, serving as accurate long range artillery, cleared out centers of resistance and allowed defending troops no time to reorganize.

Panzer divisions were the spearhead of the ground attack, with infantry following in trucks and on foot.

The line of advance was long and exposed, but its velocity

and surprise penetration into what had been rear areas effectually prevented the delivery of any effective blows on its flanks.

The Allied armies in France were separated and thrown into disorder.

That portion of them which was to the north of the German advance upon the Channel ports was restricted to rear-guard actions in an area which was steadily shrinking in size under Nazi assaults. At their backs was the sea and the port of Dunkirk.

On May 27, 1940, their evacuation from the region of Dunkirk was begun. By June 4, 1940, it had been achieved.

The British navy, its activities supplemented by those of the heroic "small vessels pool," the RAF, whose fighters maintained an umbrella over the region during critical days, together with merciful periods of hazy weather, combined to work a miracle.

More than 320,000 troops, over one-third of them French, were brought off from Dunkirk's jetties and beaches in those 10 days.

The brilliance of the achievement was dimmed by the fact that all equipment heavier than machine guns had to be left behind.

The German armies then attacked to the south on June 5, 1940, and simultaneously thrust west towards France's Atlantic ports.

Attempts to restore a front in France failed.

Continued systematic bombing of towns and of refugees on the roads produced a decisive effect by further disorganizing the French armies.

Neither the so-called Weygand Line, which was a hastily organized anti-tank zone, nor the lines of the Aisne or the Marne rivers could withstand the assault.

The Maginot Line was turned from the rear, and, its garrison depleted by drafts for the field armies, was breached by frontal attack from across the Rhine.

On June 14, 1940, Paris, previously declared an open city, was abandoned to the Germans.

Marshal Pétain was brought in as Premier on June 16, 1940,

and declared "with a heavy heart I say we must cease to fight."

His new government refused the alternative of withdrawing to North Africa and keeping up the fight, and on June 16, 1940, voted to seek an armistice.

The Armistice was signed at Compiègne, under the most humiliating circumstances that the Nazis could contrive, on June 22, 1940, and three days later it became effective.

Italy was included in the negotiations leading up to the Armistice and in the Armistice itself.

On June 10, 1940, she had changed her role of Germany's "non-belligerent ally" for that of a combatant, and started to invade France.

By this action Italy's subjection to Nazi control was all but completed.

The Results of German Victories

Defense and a defensive attitude had not been enough to meet the challenge of the German mechanized armies.

Nearly all of France, including territory giving immediate access to Fascist Spain, was occupied by the victors, who appropriated all available resources for German use.

"Unoccupied France" was ruled from Vichy from June 25, 1940, to November 27, 1942, when the Nazis moved in after the Allies landed in North Africa.

Between July 9 and July 11, 1940, the French Third Republic ceased to exist, and all governmental powers were vested in Marshal Pétain as Chief of State, whose role became increasingly that of a Hitler tool.

Some Frenchmen, answering the call first voiced by General de Gaulle on June 18, 1940, continued to resist the dictators under the direction of a French National Committee set up in London on June 23, 1940, and in association with Britain, the ally to whom France had promised the year before that she would not conclude a separate armistice.

They called themselves "Free French" at first, and later (July 13, 1942) adopted the appropriate title of "Fighting French."

The Battle of Britain

After the French Armistice, Britain, the last of Germany's declared enemies, stood alone.

As a Cockney put it "she had reached the final round, and was playing for the championship on the home grounds."

The odds appeared to be against her.

1. By their conquests the Germans had acquired many convenient bases from which bombers and protecting fighters could operate against Britain.
2. They likewise had in their possession many "invasion ports" on the south shore of the Channel where they gathered ships and barges specially equipped for a cross-Channel dash and a landing.
3. Furthermore, the initiative was in German hands.

British troops evacuated from Dunkirk were weary, disorganized, and without proper weapons to resist a mass invasion.

The ability of the British navy to deal with Field Marshal Goering's land-based Luftwaffe was uncertain.

As on previous occasions Hitler prefaced Germany's next military effort with propaganda.

In his address to the Reichstag on July 19, 1940, he pretended to offer Britain peace—on Germany's terms—and declared, "I can see no reason why this war must go on."

He appealed to "reason and common sense in Britain" to recognize the hopelessness and uselessness of continuing the struggle, and threatened Germany's remaining military opponent with the phrase: "There are no more islands."

Goering, newly created Marshal of the Reich, explained the threat implicit in der Führer's phrase.

"The Luftwaffe has prepared the last conquest of the last enemy."

Air power was to bring Hitler's prophecy to pass that "A great Empire will be destroyed—an Empire that it was never my intention to destroy or harm."

Air power, according to the German plan, was to soften Britain up for the invasion without which the German objective could not be attained.

What Weygand had described as the Battle of France had ended on June 25, 1940.

On August 8, 1940, the Battle of Britain began.

Mass operations in daytime were the rule at first, with as many as 100 bombers engaged in a single operation.

The Luftwaffe's objective varied from time to time; at first it was British naval bases, and warships and convoys in the narrow seas, later it was British airfields, still later London's docks, industries, and people.

The fighter squadrons of the RAF equipped with Spitfires and Hurricanes again showed their mettle.

As at Dunkirk they inflicted heavy losses on the Luftwaffe, at a ratio reaching as high as 4:1, and managed by their organization and control, and by the dispersion of their airfields to keep sufficient fighters in the air to deny the Germans success.

Britain was later to confess that at a crucial stage she had only five fighters in reserve.

The Luftwaffe shifted its tactics as well as its objectives.

They provided heavy fighter escorts for their bombers; as many as 5:1 in late September 1940.

They flew at great heights (5-6 miles) sacrificing accuracy of bombing to safety, and forcing the defending fighters to climb to great heights before engaging in combat.

They engaged in mass raids at night, and by day sought to draw off the British fighters from inland areas by diversion raids along the coast.

But the RAF remained in the ring and punished its adversary decisively.

Their planes were good, their pilots were well trained and their coordination of listening devices, spotters, filter stations, operations officers, and fighter squadrons excellent.

The latter were directed against the enemy from the ground.

On one notable day a single squadron made 21 flights and contacted the enemy on each occasion.

They were not content with defensive action.

On August 25, 1940, the Bomber Command of the RAF flew directly over Berlin and bombed it for the first time.

Even earlier they had begun to carry the war to the enemy by air by bombing communication centers and the inva-

sion ports on the Continent.

Britain, and especially London, took a terrible beating.

But even in London the physical damage was dispersed over a great area.

Casualties, largely civilian, were heavy, but German terrorism failed to produce the demoralizing effect intended by its authors.

Cold anger, rather than fright, was the result of casualties.

Morale was raised rather than lowered.

In early October the German attacks diminished both in frequency and number.

Nuisance raids replaced those which had been assigned major objectives.

Heavy bombings of individual targets had to be endured later.

Coventry was mercilessly bombed on the night of November 14-15, 1940, while London was showered with incendiaries in December.

Results of Battle of Britain

But it gradually became clear that Britain had weathered the storm.

No invasion had taken place, although it was rumored that invasion fleets had left the shelter of French harbors.

Britain must continue in a defensive role, but she had gained invaluable time to strengthen her defenses.

She had reorganized and reequipped her army with the products of British industry and American arsenals.

A Home Guard of 500,000 enthusiasts had been formed.

An Air Raid Precautions Service had been set up and functioned well.

It was needed, for in the period of mass attacks there were 30,000 serious fires in London alone.

Britain had survived the German attack.

The RAF had rightly earned Churchill's praise (August 20, 1940) "Never in the field of human conflict was so much owed by so many to so few."

So long as Britain survived Germany was denied a European triumph, and for just so long the democracies retained a first-rate base for operations against German-ruled countries.

Chapter 3

Japanese Offensives in the Far East, 1939-1942

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Japanese ambitions for dominion in East Asia were not satisfied by the gains she had made at China's expense in the period 1931-1939.

They continued their drive toward their ultimate objectives with renewed vigor.

In the opening months of 1939, Japan seized critical islands.

1. The Island of Hainan.

This furnished a base for further Japanese operations against Southwest China and against French Indo-China.

2. Spratley Islands.

These were small, hardly more than coral reefs (like Wake Island), but were conveniently close to the Philippines and to Borneo.

Quite as purposeful was the distribution by the Japanese of narcotics among Chinese in the occupied territory.

The newly acquired islands would place Japan in more favorable position for later adventures.

The narcotics would, at the moment, weaken the Chinese will to resist, and ruin their future physique as well.

Japan Extends Her Operations After September 1, 1939

When war broke in Europe on September 1, 1939, Japan was presented with major opportunities.

At that moment Japanese armed forces were comparatively inactive.

Optimists declared that her attempt to conquer China had bogged down.

They argued that the Chinese, under Chiang Kai-shek, were resisting valiantly, and that China was of enormous size.

They pointed out that great areas were free from Japanese control.

A more accurate view of the situation is that the failure of the Japanese to press their campaign in China was due to the fact that they were preparing for major actions elsewhere—a view which is no discredit to the fighting Chinese.

With European powers possessed of major interests in the Far East deeply involved elsewhere, Japan continued her “coast-creeping policy” in critical areas in November 1939.

1. In the region of Kwantung (near Canton and Hong Kong).
2. At Yamchow and Nanning (on borders of French Indo-China).

Japan in Indo-China

With the “Fall of France” and the ensuing “Battle of Britain” (May-October 1940) Japan’s opportunities became golden.

France had become Vichy France—Britain had her hands full at home, and in the Middle East.

Accordingly, Premier Konoye of Japan talked loudly of the “Great East Asia Co-Prosperity Sphere.”

General Hata declared “We must not . . . miss this rare opportunity . . . Japan must act drastically against the powers who obstruct her policy.”

Japan did more than talk—she acted, and acted swiftly, and as always, with an eye to her main objectives.

Vichy France resisted hardly at all when Japan sought to gain control of Indo-China, and the colony itself was almost without military resources.

This French colony was important because of its

1. Resources (rice, metals, harbors) which were of special value to Japan.
2. Geographical position which was likewise of great military importance to the Japanese. Indo-China lay within bombing range of the Burma Road (China’s lifeline for supplies) and was close to Malaya (British base at Singapore).

By the end of July 1940 the French colonial authorities under Vichy’s control had:

1. Recognized the “special requirements of Japanese troops in China.”

2. Turned the French concession at Shanghai over to Japan.
3. Prohibited the transit of munitions through Indo-China to Chungking (Chinese capital and center of resistance), and allowed Japanese "inspectors" to enforce this prohibition within Indo-China.
They appropriated for Japan's use supplies which China valued at over \$8,000,000.
4. The French completely capitulated by September 22, 1940. Japanese military and naval occupation followed swiftly (September 1940-June 1941).
All ports, flying fields, railways, and all resources fell under Japan's control.

Japan Signs the Pact of Berlin

Japan's rapid occupation of Indo-China was achieved as the result of pressure applied to Vichy by both Tokyo and Berlin. Berlin's aid was enthusiastically given Japan because on September 27, 1940, Japan became a full fledged member of the Berlin-Rome-Tokyo military alliance (Pact of Berlin).

Significant clauses appeared in this Tripartite Pact:

"Germany and Italy recognize and respect the leadership of Japan in the establishment of a new order in Great East Asia."

"Germany, Italy, and Japan . . . undertake to assist one another with all political, economic and military means when one of the contracting powers is attacked by a power not at present involved in the European war or in the Chinese-Japanese conflict."

This was much more definite than the vague terms of the Anti-Comintern Pact of 1936. Mr. Hull (Secretary of State) had described the latter as meaning that "if you stepped on the tail of one of them (Germany, Italy, or Japan), the other two would holler." (Even so, this Pact was renewed November 25, 1941).

Not much imagination was required to see what power the allies had in mind here, especially since Japan, speaking through Foreign Minister Matsuoka, soon declared "I fling this challenge to America: If she is going . . . to stick blindly and stubbornly to the *status quo* in the Pacific, then we will fight America."

America's Reactions

The United States was quickly aware that the words of the Treaty and the actions of Japan constituted a fresh menace to her interests. But the people were already alarmed.

Congress had passed the Selective Service Act, September 16, 1940.

(In addition to developments in the Pacific it is well to remember that France had fallen, and that the Battle of Britain was raging at that time).

The United States gave China 50 million dollars of credit.

An Executive Order put an embargo on export of scrap iron and aviation gasoline to Japan.

Japanese Diplomatic Activities

But the Japanese kept on their way, which lay invitingly open.

1. Negotiations with Thailand, based on diplomatic intrigue and economic penetration dating from 1935, were opened in 1940 and continued into 1941.

As a result, Japan quietly obtained a position of controlling influence in this vital area.

2. Negotiations between Japan and the U. S. S. R. led to their Non-Aggression Pact of April 13, 1941, which promised no war for five years.

The U.S.S.R., already threatened by Hitler, wished to guard against the danger of being forced to fight in Siberia, while resisting a German onslaught in the west.

(Hitler's attack on the U. S. S. R. was actually made on June 22, 1941.)

3. Negotiations between Japan and the Netherlands East Indies, begun much earlier, were pushed hard.

The Japanese rated these islands as part of their "Greater East Asia."

They coveted the islands' oil, rubber, naval, and air bases.

They pressed hard for economic concessions (oil especially) which they had failed to get in the fall of 1940.

The Dutch stood firm and refused these demands although they faced dire consequences in so doing.

America's Counter Measures

We in the United States saw the meaning of these developments. We began to take more definite measures.

1. American engineers were sent to speed traffic via the Burma Road.
2. American airmen were allowed to join Chiang Kai-shek. They became General Chennault's "Flying Tigers."
3. The Lend-Lease Act, passed March 11, 1941, gave material aid to China as well as to Britain, and involved a clear acknowledgment that China and United States were part of the Democratic Front.
4. The "U. S. Forces in the Far East" were created by War Department order dated July 26, 1941, and Lieutenant General Douglas MacArthur was placed in command.
5. An Executive Order froze Japanese assets (Britain and the Netherlands East Indies did the same) on July 26, 1941, as Vichy had made final submission to Japanese (July 22-29, 1941).

Diplomatic Conversations Between America and Japan

The United States was still seeking to avoid war, although the national mind was made up as to the stand we must take in the Pacific to guard our interests there.

On the initiative of Admiral Nomura (Japanese Ambassador to U. S.) secret conversations were begun March 1941, on the general subject of Japanese-American relations.

These conversations were continued into the fall months of 1941, but no offer was made by the Japanese to surrender the territories which they had seized, or to abandon their current policies. We held out for both of these actions.

A special envoy (Kurusu) was sent from Japan to assist in the conduct of the negotiations. The Japanese government chose a Liberal, like Nomura, to render its envoy more acceptable, and therefore able the more easily to prolong the negotiations.

In Japan the new government under Tojo:

1. Continued to talk of Japan's peaceful purposes.
2. Still shouted about "Greater East Asia."
3. Declared threateningly that the United States now had "a last opportunity to make amends for past aggression."

Yet when Kurusu arrived at San Francisco he expressed the hope that he would "make a touchdown" in his talks with Mr. Hull.

But U.S. Marines were ordered out of Japanese-dominated Tientsin, Peiping, and Shanghai. This action indicated that the U.S. Government viewed the situation as critical. As the conversations developed, Mr. Hull consulted frequently with representatives of Britain, China, and Dutch East Indies. With America these three constituted the "ABCD Powers." All of them had vital interests in the Pacific area.

Clearly Kurusu was *not* going to score a touchdown.

The situation was critical.

On December 5, 1941, the American public was informed that Japan had answered America's query regarding the purpose of large scale Japanese troop movements in Indo-China with the statement that they were present there as a precautionary measure (against a Chinese threat), and that their numbers had been exaggerated.

On December 6, 1941, the President made a last appeal to Hirohito, Emperor of Japan.

He pointed out that the Japanese forces sent into Indo-China were so large as to create "A reasonable doubt . . . that this continuing concentration . . . is not defensive in its character."

He added that "none of the peoples (involved) can sit either indefinitely or permanently on a keg of dynamite."

He expressed the hope that, through the Emperor, peace might be preserved.

The Sunday papers of December 7, 1941, told of the President's latest action.

They also described the return of American troops to camps after maneuvers in the South.

They chronicled the fact that it was the birthday of King Leopold of Belgium.

The same day Japan's envoys made an appointment at the State Department for 1345 hours.

They appeared at 1405 and were received at 1420.

They handed Secretary Hull a document asserting that the Japanese loved peace and had sought it constantly.

They even insisted that the Pact of Berlin (Axis Alliance, 1940) was part of this effort.

Here was an Axis technique as characteristic as their further assertion:

"Obviously it is the intention of the American Government to conspire with Great Britain and other countries to obstruct Japan's efforts towards the establishment of peace through the creation of a new order in East Asia . . ."

Mr. Hull told the Japanese that "In all my fifty years of public service I have never seen a document that was more crowded with infamous falsehoods and distortions—infamous falsehoods and distortions on a scale so huge that I never imagined until today that any Government on this planet was capable of uttering them."

Pearl Harbor

At the very moment the Japanese envoys were closeted with the American Secretary of State, Japan was committing an act of war without warning.

It was the tenth such action on the part of an Axis power. Simultaneous attacks were delivered by Japanese forces against Malaya, Hong Kong, Guam, the Philippines, Wake and Midway, and upon the Hawaiian Islands.

The carefully planned attack on the last named point was delivered at 0755 Honolulu time, 1325 EST.

After the event Japan formally declared war upon the United States at 2100 EST, December 7, 1941.

This nation was thereby plunged into the hostilities raging all over the world.

There followed in due consequence:

1. The United States Declaration of War on Japan, December 8, 1941.
2. The Declarations of War upon the United States by Japan's allies (Germany and Italy), and the United States Declarations of War upon them on December 11, 1941.

We, like Britain, China, the U. S. S. R., and the Governments in Exile, became engaged in a struggle for nothing less than survival.

Japan on the Offensive

For three months after Pearl Harbor the Japanese had it their own way in the Pacific area.

The story of events there was that of the collapse of the United Nations' limited defenses.

Japan resumed her march toward her declared objectives.

By February 1942 she had actually enlarged them by including India and Australia in the list of lands to be brought under Japanese control.

Control of the Pacific area depended upon the retention or seizure by the combatants of useful bases in the Pacific islands and on the mainland of Asia.

Japanese Attacks on Pacific Islands

Island bases were quickly seized by Japan.

Japan's immediate defensive position was such that she could make attacks from her well developed island bases, and use her control of the seas to reduce and appropriate the weakly held islands of the United Nations.

Pearl Harbor was, however, retained by the United States in spite of a naval disaster whose extent was not revealed to the nation for reasons inherent in the general defensive situation. It remained as a base, but the fighting strength of the fleet based upon it was obviously reduced, to the great disadvantage of the United Nations.

Hong Kong was a major British base defended by a garrison of 12,000.

It was attacked by a superior Japanese force on December 7, 1941.

Within three days the mainland area was evacuated and the only airfield was lost.

On December 19, 1941, the Japanese landed on the island itself which surrendered December 25, 1941, after the last reservoirs had fallen into Jap hands.

Hong Kong's loss crippled the Allies in terms of military operations, and its capture caused serious damage to the prestige ("face") of the United Nations in the Far East.

U. S. island bases were attacked by the Japanese at the same time.

1. Vital links in the line from Hawaii to the Philippines felt the blows.

Midway Island's Marine garrison held out and punished its attackers severely.

Wake Island's resistance was equally heroic, but could not be prolonged beyond December 23.

Guam, in process of being developed under the tardy appropriation of 1938, was not in a position to hold out, and the Japanese gained a new island base there by December 13, 1941.

2. The Philippines also came under attack on December 7. The Japanese concentrated their offensive on the Island of Luzon where they employed high velocity tactics in their assault by carrier and land based planes.

The American airfields were smothered by the initial bombing and many planes were destroyed on the ground. Japanese control of the air was thereafter assured.

The American naval base at Cavite was also bombed into uselessness.

Landings in North and South Luzon followed after a stalwart stand by American forces along the Lingayen Gulf collapsed from a Japanese movement around the flank, and the enemy moved from both directions upon the capital.

MacArthur's Filipinos and Americans were too few to stop the invaders without either air or naval support, or without renewal of their supplies.

By the end of December the defending forces withdrew to Bataan peninsula, a mountainous area north of the entrance to Manila Bay, and to the island forts in the Bay itself.

On January 2, 1942 Manila was occupied by the Japanese. Thereafter the stoutest resistance, developing into an epic of human courage, was put up by the men who called themselves "bastards of Bataan."

Heavy Japanese attacks, beginning in late January 1942 were beaten off for a time, but Bataan had to be abandoned on April 9, 1942.

Corregidor, with the remnants of its garrison under General Wainright, was forced to capitulate on May 6, 1942. General MacArthur had been evacuated under orders to take command in Australia.

Attacks on the Asiatic Mainland—Thailand, Malaya and Burma

On the Asiatic mainland likewise the Japanese struck suddenly and vigorously.

1. Thailand, which the Japanese had earlier begun to penetrate diplomatically, and with military missions, was swiftly invaded on December 7, 1941.

By December 21, 1941, the Thai kingdom had become the formal ally of Japan.

It furnished the Japanese with huge supplies of food, useful metals and, above all, new bases for use against Burma and Malaya, and also against China proper.

2. British Malaya was vital to the United Nations.

It constituted a major source of rubber, tin, and (with Netherlands East Indies) quinine for them all.

Singapore lay at the southern tip of an island at the southern end of the Malay Peninsula.

A great British naval base was situated there, but at the moment it was without the capital elements of a battle fleet save for the new battleship *Prince of Wales* and the battle cruiser *Repulse* which had arrived on December 2, 1941.

The disaster at Pearl Harbor prevented any possible immediate use of Singapore by the United States battle fleet.

A garrison of 60,000 was there in process of being reinforced, but the entire area lacked planes and equipment which were in greater demand elsewhere, e. g., Libya-U.S.S.R.

The Japanese began their attack December 7, 1941.

Swift surprise landings were negotiated developing from North and East.

The main British defenses faced the sea and the South, hundreds of miles from the scene of invasion.

The airfield at Khota Baru was at once lost to the defenders, and when the British capital ships sought to destroy a Japanese convoy, both were sunk by air attacks (December 10, 1941). In view of the consequences, the destruction of *Repulse* and *Prince of Wales* must be considered the turning point in the campaign and a major success in the use of planes against capital ships.

A quick Japanese drive from the eastward cut across the bottle-neck of the peninsula.

Infiltration tactics by small units armed with deadly infantry cannon and mortars, plus tank attacks (to which flooded rice fields proved no obstacle) were skillfully combined by the Japanese.

Line after line of resistance was forced or turned, the enemy proceeding at virtually a marching pace.

By the end of January only the island of Singapore, already heavily bombed, remained in British hands.

The Japanese got a footing on the island at many points soon after, and the last reservoirs were taken by the invaders on February 14, 1942.

Singapore surrendered the next day. By that time the military situation was not only hopeless but untenable.

3. Burma, a British colony, was as vulnerable as Malaya.

There were fewer than 20,000 troops available for its defense. Here the attack developed from Japan's Thailand base early in January 1942.

By the end of that month, the useful Burmese port of Moulmein was lost. The enemy was held for a time along the Salween, but with the loss of that river line all doubt was removed that Burma was lost also.

Desperate work by the American Volunteer Group and by the RAF could only impede the operation of Japanese airfields. They could not smash attacking columns, nor form the spearhead for an assault by their own ground forces which were decisively outnumbered.

Rangoon, Burma's chief city, was abandoned by March 10, 1942, and Lieutenant General Stilwell and the British General Alexander led a composite force (British, Indian, and Chinese) over the frontier of India. The retreat from Lower Burma along the Irrawaddy and Sittang river lines had been tactically brilliant, but strategically unavailing.

Attack on the Netherlands East Indies

The Japanese conquest of Malaya and Burma paved the way for their attack on the Netherlands East Indies which had gone to war against Japan immediately after December 7, 1941 without waiting to be invaded.

The Indies were rich in materials which the enemy needed.

Tin, quinine, rubber, and especially oil were the major items in Japan's list of prospective booty.

Even if a "scorched earth" policy were resolutely applied, Japan's adversaries would lose these badly needed supplies.

Centers of resistance in the N. E. I. were vulnerable because separated, and because of numerical weakness—less than 80,000 men in the total N. E. I. force.

Strenuous efforts had been made by the Dutch to strengthen the islands since 1938, but their forces were very badly depleted at the actual hour of the Japanese onfall against Sumatra and Java, because the Dutch had already expended much of their air and sea power in (1) Attacking Japanese shipping in the South China Sea (2) Supporting the British defense of Malaya, and (3) Bombing Japanese concentrations in Mindanao.

Some addition was made to the fighting strength of the islands when the United States Asiatic Fleet changed its base from Manila to Surabaya (Java), but there it was exposed to the superior air and sea power at the disposal of Japan.

Their conquest of Thailand and Malaya gave the Japanese nearby bases which they exploited to the full, while, in addition, Japan had occupied the islands of Borneo, Timor, Celebes, and part of New Guinea to the south (January 23, 1942).

A Japanese convoy was badly mauled by American destroyers in Macassar straits January 24-26, 1942.

However, this did not prevent Japanese air raids and actual landings in the N. E. I. in early February 1942.

It was the principal islands (Java and Sumatra) which felt the main blows of the attack.

Java, the last stronghold of N. E. I. resistance, was first outflanked by attacks pressed against Sumatra and Bali. The defending naval force was then destroyed in the Battle of the Java Sea. The Japanese landings were almost unopposed and the campaign came to an end when the Dutch Army was smothered at Surabaya.

Even so, a "scorched earth" policy was resolutely carried out and oil wells, stocks and refineries were efficiently destroyed by the Dutch.

By March 9, 1942, the Japanese were in full control.

Summary

For three full months after Pearl Harbor the Japanese possessed the initiative and set the pace.

At the start they had the advantage of position as a result of their earlier conquests.

A veteran army and sufficient matériel for the work in hand were at their disposal.

They were forced to drive fast and furiously.

Time, if intelligently employed, would eventually be an ally of the United Nations, but those nations could not afford to "sell space for time." Eventually they would be forced to "buy" it back at a high price.

The United Nations' Counter Attack

The United Nations were painfully aware of this menace, and of the other adverse elements in the situation.

They saw the need to build up their strength in India, Australia, and New Zealand.

All of these were threatened by the Japanese advance, and all must be held to provide bases for an eventual United Nations offensive.

The American public became aware of these necessities as it learned the locations of Port Darwin (northern Australia) and Port Moresby (southern New Guinea).

Each was raided by the Japanese from their old and from their new island bases, while the latter was threatened by the advance of Japanese land forces from bases on the north side of the island.

The United Nations public applauded the United States Navy's "hit and run" attack on the Japanese-held islands in the Marshalls and Gilberts on January 31, 1942.

General MacArthur was ordered from the Philippines to the Australian Command in early March 1942, and on April 19, 1942, was formally given command of United Nations' forces in the Southwest Pacific.

United States forces began to land in Australia where they soon had a chance to compare the merits of American P-40s and Japanese Zeros.

Other Japanese bases in the Pacific were, in their turn, given attention by the United States Navy.

Wake and Marcus Islands, the latter less than 1000 miles from Tokyo, were raided by a task force early in March 1942.

The Japanese bases in the Philippines were bombed by our flyers.

Tokyo itself was raided by United States Army bombers operating from the U. S. S. *Hornet* on April 18, 1942.

A week later MacArthur's AEF took over the Fighting French island of New Caledonia which became a useful base for defense and offense on the part of the United Nations. The Japanese proved that they were still capable of action by landing forces in the Aleutians where they seized Kiska and Attu in June 1942.

This action followed a bombing raid against our base at Dutch Harbor which was decisively repulsed.

But the mounting strength of the United Nations became evident in a variety of actions.

1. The Battle of the Coral Sea, May 4-8, 1942.
2. The Battle of Midway, June 3-6, 1942.
3. The seizure and retention of Japanese-held bases on the Solomon Islands, August 7, 1942 (Guadalcanal, Tulagi, Gavatu, and Tanambogo).
4. Raid on the Makin Island seaplane base by U.S. Naval Task Force, August 17, 1942.
5. The establishment of bases in the Andreanofs (Atka), from which Kiska and Attu might be bombed, as was announced October 3, 1942.
6. The halting of the Japanese offensive against Port Moresby in New Guinea, and the delivery of a counterattack through the mountain jungles of the Stanley Range against Buna and Gona.
7. A series of naval actions in the Solomons region which caused heavy losses to the Japanese (Savo Island, August 8-9; Eastern Solomons, August 23-25; Cape Esperance, October 11-12; Santa Cruz Islands, October 26; Guadalcanal, November 13-15; Lunga Point, November 30-December 1, 1942).
8. Raid on Wake Island by U.S. AAF bombers, December 24, 1942.

These actions were all good portents.

They hurt Japanese sea power, as had the activities of United States submarines in Japan's home waters.

They otherwise improved the position of the United Nations and worsened that of Japan.

Yet a long road lay ahead.

The routes from the United States to Australia were long, whether via the Pacific or around Africa, and they had to be vigilantly guarded.

Great dispersion of our naval strength resulted, and concentration is necessary to win command of the seas.

The route from Britain to India and Australia was likewise long, and convoys imposed added strains on the British fleet.

The U. S. S. R. was at close grips with the Nazis on her Western front.

It was self evident that her situation in the west was such that she could not afford voluntarily to engage Japan in the Far East.

If she were attacked there it was doubtful if our rearmament program had progressed far enough to enable us to give her immediate and substantial support in the air.

If she engaged Japan, could United States bombers be serviced and supplied in Kamchatka, whence they could bomb Japan from bases in Soviet territory?

So after a year of war in the Pacific it appeared that Japan was still to call the plays.

For more than six months she had been in occupation of those critical points which she seized during the period of declared war in the Pacific Islands and on the Asiatic mainland.

It could be assumed that her capabilities for military and naval action based on them had been increased.

She could still threaten an attack on North India's industrial centers from Burma.

She could still threaten the United Nations' "lifeline" across the Pacific upon whose maintenance so much depends.

She could still threaten Australia and New Zealand from the north and northeast.

It therefore seemed a reasonable estimate that only a relentless

and sustained attack could alter the existing balance in the Pacific area.

Long sea lanes must be kept open by maintaining full control of the sea.

Island after island must be reduced and built into the United Nations' organization for an eventual full-scale offensive.

Meanwhile India, Australia, and New Zealand must be defended, and China must be assisted to turn an heroic defensive into a victorious offensive.

All these were "musts" for the United States and the United Nations.

Chapter 4

Battles for the Mediterranean, 1940-1942

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The Mediterranean is a great inland sea.

From time immemorial its seaways have brought the lands about its shores into close association.

In ancient times Phoenicians and Greeks ranged along its shore lines and colonized them and its islands.

Rome's provinces ringed the inland sea about.

In more modern times the Turks, Italians, Spaniards, French, British, Germans, Russians, and Balkan peoples have all developed properties and interests related to it.

The Dardanelles and the Bosphorus have served to link the Western Powers with Russia and to bring them into a common diplomatic orbit.

Even before the construction of the Suez Canal it served as a major line of communication between Western Europe and Eastern Asia.

Since the opening of the Canal (1869) the Red Sea coast of its southern approaches, the Sudan, Eritrea, British Somaliland, and Aden, have acquired a Western significance.

Inevitably, therefore, the interests and policies of the many nations concerned with the area have often clashed.

Inevitably, any alteration or any threatened alteration in the status of any region within the area has always caused grave concern to all the nations involved.

At the outbreak of war in 1939 the truth of these statements was exhibited by—

1. The U. S. S. R.'s continued interest in access to the sea which she showed through political and economic understandings with Turkey who controlled the Straits (refortified in 1936).
2. Spain's possession of Spanish Morocco and her share in the international control of Tangier.
3. The French colonies of Morocco and Tunis and her mandated territories in Syria.

4. Italian Libya, Somaliland, and Ethiopia.
5. British possessions, Gibraltar, Malta, and Cyprus, her mandate of Palestine and her armed forces resident in the independent state of Egypt.

International Rivalries and Activities 1939

Even before the commencement of hostilities international friction was evident in this region.

1. Italy had sought, and obtained, a rectification of Libya's frontiers from Britain and France.

Fascists had demanded that their government take Tunisia from France.

The fortifications of the island of Pantelleria (between Sicily and Tunisia) had been developed, a heavy barbed wire defense had been built along the frontier between Libya and Egypt, the military road east from Tripoli had been somewhat improved, and the province had been given a military organization.

2. Spain, associate of Rome and Berlin, had forcefully expressed her ambition for exclusive control of Tangier and had heavily fortified Algeciras and Ceuta (north and south of the Straits of Gibraltar) with German assistance.

3. Britain, whose Mediterranean interests dated back to the sixteenth century, was—

Perfecting the defenses of Gibraltar and Malta.

Improving the facilities of Alexandria as a naval base.

A floating dock was built in Britain and towed to the port.

Developing the facilities of Haifa (Palestine), one terminus of the pipe line from Iraq, as an oil port.

Strengthening Aden (Red Sea coast of Arabia).

British Somaliland was undefendable in case of attack from the Italian territories which bordered it, and the Red Sea approaches to the British line of communications in the Mediterranean must be protected.

N.B.: Britain rightly regarded Gibraltar, Malta, and Alexandria as the keys to her position in the Mediterranean. She was aware, however, as all nations had been since 1918, that aviation had revolutionized the military situation in the Mediterranean area. The Sea had become a narrow corridor, and military actions on its shores, its availability as a line of communications, and the role of

sea power in the area had all been profoundly affected.

4. Germany had, through aid given Spain in 1936, got her foot inside the Mediterranean door.

For more than 30 years she had been trying to obtain a foothold on the North African coast, but it had been a major principle of the policy of the older Mediterranean powers to block her.

Franco's debt to Germany suggested that Hitler might be able to range Spain and Spanish Morocco on his side, and make use of Spanish bases, many of which had been built by Germans during the Spanish War.

War in the Mediterranean to September 1940

From the time of Germany's attack on Poland on September 1, 1939, until Italy joined her ally in attacking France on June 10, 1940, France and Britain held a powerful position in the Mediterranean.

1. French bases at Oran and Bizerte supplemented those in British hands, and a French squadron functioned under British command.
2. France and Britain had pledged assistance to Greece (April 13, 1939) if she were forced to resist aggression, and on October 19, 1939, sought further to safeguard their Mediterranean position by a treaty with Turkey promising mutual aid against aggression.

However, Italy's entrance into the war and the fall of France altered the situation radically.

German and Italian armistice commissions took over the resources of Morocco, Tunisia, and Syria.

The French Mediterranean fleet was immobilized at Toulon, demilitarized at Alexandria, and attacked by the British at Oran and Dakar to prevent its serving the Axis.

The British must hereafter maintain control of the Sea alone. The Italians in Libya could concentrate their attention on Egypt since they no longer had to guard against a French attack from Tunisia.

The loss of their French ally in Syria cut the British off from direct connection with Turkey and consequently diminished the protective value of the Anglo-Turkish Treaty of October 19, 1939.

Axis air power, based on Sicily and Libya, made communications so difficult to maintain that the British were forced to employ the route from England to Egypt by way of the Cape of Good Hope.

This added 13 weeks to the length of voyages, and required the services of seven times as many ships as the Mediterranean route demanded.

From July to September 1940 minor military actions occurred.

The British cut through the belt of Italian wire on the Libyan frontier, cut the water line between Bardia and Fort Capuzzo, and bombarded Italian ports from the sea.

The Italians were likewise active to the east of Egypt in operations based on Ethiopia.

In July they seized points within British Kenya and the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan (Moyale and Kassala).

In August they invaded and conquered British Somaliland and thereby further threatened British traffic on the Red Sea.

The First Axis Offensive—Libya—September 1940

In the same period the Italians reinforced Field Marshal Graziani's army on the western frontier of Egypt.

On September 13, 1940, this army of 200,000 men moved against British advanced positions at El Sollum on a narrow front.

The British Middle East Force, with headquarters in Cairo, had at its disposal in Palestine, Egypt, and the Sudan about 110,000 men.

As Graziani attacked, the British dropped back to their great advanced base at the rail head at Mersa Matruh.

In that vicinity both armies established defense works and waited.

Italy Attacks Greece

Meanwhile the Axis was busy on the other side of the Mediterranean.

Germany extended her political and economic controls in Rumania, and in early October 1940 sent in "instructors" who were the advance guards of a German army.

With a view to gaining other coveted and critical territory in the Balkans Mussolini confronted Greece with an ultimatum on October 28, 1940.

On June 10, 1939, Il Duce had declared "that Italy does not intend to drag other peoples who are her neighbors into this conflict" and was at pains to include Greece among Italy's neighbors.

Now he coupled his ultimatum with an attack from his Albanian frontier.

The Italians won some ground, but in winter fighting the Greeks turned the tables, invaded Albania and threatened its ports in an adroitly waged mountain campaign in which the RAF gave them assistance.

The First British Offensive—Libya and Eritrea, 1940-41

In Egypt Britain was preparing an offensive that was to become a classic example of motorized war.

On December 9, 1940, General Wavell launched a surprise attack around the Italians' southern flank.

His order was simple—"Attack and pursue," but his preparations had been both elaborate and secret, and the cooperation of all arms—army, air, and navy—was notable from the start.

The initial action leading to the capture of Sidi Barrani on December 10, 1940, determined the issue of the campaign. Its surprise nature and its speed caused Graziani to lose both his control over his command, and his personal composure.

Wavell exploited his initial success to the full, maintained the high initial velocity of his attack, and hence continued in possession of the initiative.

Some positions, such as the critical Halfaya Pass, were abandoned by the Italians, others were reduced by the British after their encirclement.

Simultaneously the Long Range Desert Patrol made 2,000-mile raids deep into the interior of Libya, destroying Italian posts and airfields.

While one of the main British columns proceeded to invest the port of Derna, another moved southwest towards Mekili. Both objectives were taken on January 30, 1941.

A mobile column then negotiated the 150 miles of rough desert track southwest from Mekili.

It reached the road along which the Italians were retiring from Benghazi an hour and forty minutes before the head of the retreating column. The resulting action, coupled with that about Benghazi resulted in the bagging of some 20,000 prisoners.

By February 8, 1941, the British had occupied El Agheila on the western border of Libya.

In the two-month desert campaign they had destroyed an army, and taken 420 tanks, 1,300 guns and over 133,000 prisoners.

Their speed and skill had kept their own casualties to a minimum—a total of under 3,000 of whom only 604 were listed as killed.

Wavell threw his Middle East Force against the Italians in Ethiopia as well as in Libya.

His units in the Sudan and Kenya received reinforcements from Britain, from South Africa, and from India.

Their numbers, however, were kept at a minimum so that the Middle East Force might throw sufficient weight against Graziani to assure victory, but as victories were won in Libya more troops became available for use in the Ethiopian campaign.

Scots and Indians attacked the mountain fortress of Keren on February 3, 1941, and won this key to Ethiopia after a month of strenuous fighting.

South Africans pressed into Ethiopia from the south. They overcame all opposition on the road to the north and west through port towns on the Indian Ocean, marched 1,725 miles in 53 days and entered the capital city of Addis Ababa on April 6, 1941.

Troops landed from the sea, and others advancing overland from the south, recovered British Somaliland March 17-20, 1941, and British and Indians moved against Massawa from the west and took this capital of Eritrea on April 8, 1941.

These successes allowed the United States to revise the sea zones barred to American ships and enabled them to assist in carrying supplies to Egypt by way of the Red Sea (April 10, 1941).

A converging attack on the mountain position of Amba Alagi

led to the surrender of the Duke of Aosta on May 18, 1941. Isolated Italian forces still held out in the Lake region south of Addis Ababa and at Gondar to the north, but they were successfully eliminated in May and November 1941. The Italian Empire in Ethiopia had been destroyed.

Revolt in Iraq—Blitzkrieg in the Balkans 1941

Elsewhere in the Mediterranean area developments were far less favorable for the British and their allies.

1. In Iraq a coup by the native prince El Gailani on April 4, 1941, gave temporary power to Axis partisans and threatened the British grip on the oil fields from Mosul to Basra.

Transport planes proved of great value to the British in defending critical airfields, Indian and British reinforcements threatened Baghdad and the revolt collapsed at the end of May.

2. In the Balkans Germany launched a genuine Blitzkrieg against Greece and Yugoslavia.

The former had been battling Hitler's Axis ally since the previous October.

The latter had recently refused to sign the Pact of Berlin and by so doing defied the Axis.

Some 60,000 British troops had been, or were in process of being, landed in Greece from Libya to aid their ally against the German attack which had threatened ever since the vanguard of German armies entered Bulgaria in the preceding January.

The appearance of Germans, in the guise of "tourists," actually meant the establishment of complete German control over this Balkan kingdom which became a full-fledged Axis partner by signing the Pact of Berlin on March 1, 1941.

From this recently acquired base the Germans struck on April 6, 1941 under the direction of Field Marshal von List. The movement of his mechanized forces in the first 72 hours of the campaign determined its issue.

A two pronged advance in the south reached the Vardar valley with little opposition. Then one column struck southward to Salonika while the other advanced on Monastir via Veles.

Its results were that

1. The junction of Yugoslav and Greek armies was fore stalled.
2. The Greek army in the region of Salonika was crushed.
3. The Greek armies in Albania were isolated.
4. The Greek and British defensive plans for the Allied center were aborted.

The lack of Allied air power and mechanized equipment certified the disaster.

Dogged rear-guard action marked the British retreat. The Greeks earned praise from Hitler.

"Of all our opponents the Greek soldier fought with the greatest bravery, supreme courage, and contempt of death."

The Yugoslav armies never completed their mobilization as German and Hungarian columns pierced and overran their country and on April 18, 1941, Yugoslav generals signed an armistice.

On April 23, 1941, the Greek Government was forced to do the same, and by April 28, 1941, the British had evacuated the bulk of their forces to Crete.

That island was vigorously attacked by the Germans from the air on May 4, 1941.

German bombers, based on the newly acquired airfields of the Peloponnesus, opened the attack.

The handful of RAF planes available was forced to withdraw immediately.

German paratroops floated down from relays of planes and seized the weakly defended airport at Meleme.

They were steadily reinforced by airborne infantry and their joint operations were fully coordinated with those of supporting dive bombers.

British naval forces smashed a German effort to land troops by sea, but without air support they suffered such losses at the hands of the Luftwaffe as forced their withdrawal.

British remnants retreated through the mountains to the south coast and were evacuated to Egypt.

By May 29, 1942, Crete was in German hands.

The Results of Axis Victories

As a result of these campaigns the Axis had most of the northern

shores of the Mediterranean under their control.

Crete and the Greek islands in the Ægean commanding the approaches to the Dardanelles were in their hands.

These could be used as bases for a further push eastward, subject, however, to the limits of the fighter protection which could be given to bombers and transport planes (about 250 miles).

In its advance toward the control of the Mediterranean the Axis had reversed the relative historic roles of sea and land power in this area.

Wehrmacht and land-based Luftwaffe, rather than a fleet, were their chosen instruments of conquest.

Action in Syria

The Axis made a further effort at Mediterranean conquest by bringing heavy pressure to bear on Vichy France to allow them the use of French colonial bases.

While the Battle of Crete was at its height Germany sent limited Luftwaffe detachments into Syria which was then under the control of the Vichy government.

Britain protested this action, and the United States, which had voiced emphatic disapproval of the invasion of Yugoslavia on April 6, 1941, declared that Franco-German collaboration in French colonies menaced the peace and safety of the Western Hemisphere (May 15, 1941), and that such action made France the instrument of aggression against other peoples and nations (June 5, 1941).

On June 8, 1941, British and Fighting French forces moved to the attack on French Syria in columns based upon Palestine, Transjordan, and recently recovered Iraq.

The British believed that the French armies in Syria would offer a token resistance at most, and their false estimate of the situation marred the campaign from its outset.

Its action dragged on until the armistice of July 12, 1941, which assured British control of the region.

Although geographical contact between Britain and her Turkish ally was thereby restored, the value of that contact was called into question on June 18, 1941.

Turkey then signed a treaty of friendship with Germany "without prejudice to her present obligations (alliance with Britain)."

It guaranteed, so far as Germany's signature was worth anything, the "integrity and inviolability" of Turkish territory and was accompanied by preliminaries for a trade treaty.

The position of Turkey, menaced by Axis control of adjacent lands in Europe and islands near her coast, became even more equivocal than hitherto.

The Second Axis Offensive in Libya 1941

Parallel to some of the actions heretofore noted the Axis took the offensive in Libya.

Wavell's offensive had spent its power in early February 1941 after reaching El Agheila.

British forces were progressively depleted thereafter by drafts for the Greek campaign.

Simultaneously Axis reinforcements, including elements of the German motorized Afrika Korps under General Rommel, landed in Tripoli under the protection of the Luftwaffe which was now based on Sicilian airfields.

On March 24, 1941, Rommel struck.

He had effected his concentrations so secretly that the British were unaware of his strength, and the time of his assault was a complete surprise.

The attack immediately developed into an unlimited offensive.

The slender British advanced forces were overrun, and the coastal towns of Libya were abandoned as Rommel advanced swiftly on the desert tracks of northern Cyrenaica toward the border of Egypt.

Tobruk alone held.

Although isolated it was to hold out against Axis investment for seven months, and thereby to prove that motorized troops can be stopped by a well conceived defense. During the entire period, however, it was never put under attack by Rommel's main striking force.

By mid-May the Axis armies were at Halfaya within the Egyptian frontier.

On June 15 the British sought to dislodge the enemy from that area, but were forced to withdraw after threatening Bardia.

The Axis described the result as "our great defensive victory."

To have called it more would have been unwarranted since

the ensuing Axis counter attack did not develop into a counter offensive.

The German preparations for the attack on the U. S. S. R. (June 22, 1941) had denied Rommel the reinforcements and supplies needed for the further penetration of Egypt.

The opposing forces settled down for a time, although patrol activities were incessant.

The British defensive screen followed the line of the frontier from a point to the east of Halfaya.

The Axis positions within the triangle Halfaya—Sidi Omar—Bardia were carefully organized for area defense, particular emphasis being placed upon the provision of main defensive positions, each capable of all around defense.

The Second British Offensive in Libya 1941

The presence of Rommel at Halfaya, the Axis' position in the Balkans, and German penetration into the U. S. S. R. all combined to constitute a major threat to the British position in the Mediterranean in general and in the Middle East in particular.

To eliminate the threat in North Africa by destroying Rommel's armies the British built up a great concentration of men and matériel in Egypt.

General Wavell had been moved to India and General Auchinleck had succeeded him in command of the Middle East Forces, with General Cunningham in charge of the Eighth Army facing Rommel.

The second British Libyan offensive opened on November 17-18, 1941.

A holding action in the north was coupled with a sweep from the south which circled the main Axis positions and sought possession of objectives to the west on the Axis line of communications.

The airfield at Sidi Rezegh was taken, the water pipe line cut west of Bardia, and the Italian Ariete division (armored) engaged at Bir el Gubi.

The British had divided their armor in these efforts, and their attack in the north had failed to restrict the free movement of Rommel's armored forces.

These the German concentrated against individual British brigades which he punished severely and dispersed, notably

in the region of Sidi Rezegh.

From this strong position Rommel moved eastward on November 24, 1941, to threaten the exposed British line of communications.

This line was the more vital since a desperate shortage of ammunition existed among some British units.

The next days were so obviously critical that the British replaced General Cunningham by General Ritchie under whose command it was hoped that the British offensive might be resumed.

British armor was regrouped and New Zealanders moved in the direction of Tobruk to join with the garrison there, which they did on November 26, 1941.

Rommel himself turned to attack in that area on November 27, 1941.

He was able to separate the Tobruk garrison from the advancing New Zealanders and to inflict heavy losses upon the latter.

Ritchie continued to concentrate his forces and to use them in vigorous attacks, while his commandos raided Rommel's communications.

These actions forced Rommel to withdraw rapidly to the west, leaving behind him a number of centers of resistance.

Some of these were not reduced until after the British offensive came to a halt on reaching El Agheila on January 7, 1942 (e. g. Halfaya held out until January 17, 1942).

British losses were put at 18,000 out of about 45,000 men who participated in the campaign.

They claimed to have taken 61,000 prisoners.

Their rate of loss was high, possibly too high in view of the gains achieved, for events in the immediate future proved that this campaign was not decisive.

On January 21, 1942, Rommel attacked the British covering forces near El Agheila.

These quickly withdrew to defensive positions extending south from the coast at El Gazala (about 35 miles west of Tobruk), and Rommel halted his main body facing them.

The Third Axis Offensive in Libya 1942

Later, on May 26, 1942 the third Axis offensive in Libya began. In the preceding months Axis reinforcements had arrived, cov-

ered in part by heavy Luftwaffe attacks on the British base at Malta.

These attacks limited, but did not destroy, the capacity of this "unsinkable airplane carrier" to harass enemy communications.

The U. S. S. *Wasp* shared in the hazardous work of replenishing Malta's supplies and matériel in the face of Luftwaffe attacks based on Sicily.

Maneuver and mobility again distinguished a desert campaign.

Rommel effected a partial penetration of the deep mine fields in the center of the British positions.

He then attacked Bir Hacheim at the extreme south of the British defense positions.

Its Fighting French garrison refused Rommel's summons to surrender and resisted Axis assaults from May 27 through June 12, 1942, when it was ordered to cut its way out from encirclement.

British armor had moved south to meet Rommel's attack, and Rommel struck at their line of communications, moving through the supposedly impenetrable mine fields in the center.

By destroying Bir Hacheim and forcing the mine fields Rommel completely turned the British southern flank.

On June 13, 1942, he ambushed and destroyed 230 tanks, which action determined the issue of the campaign and forced a general retirement on Egypt.

As Ritchie retired he left a garrison in Tobruk although its supplies were near exhaustion and in spite of the fact that Axis air superiority made it impossible to provision the town adequately from the sea.

The value of this action, in view of the total circumstances was dubious.

The long siege of the previous year was not repeated, and consequently no threat was made to the enemy's communications.

Rommel's motorized forces overwhelmed Tobruk's defenses in two days, and on June 21, 1942, its garrison of over 25,000 men surrendered.

Four days later General Aukinleck assumed personal direction of the Eighth Army as bombers of the U.S. AAF began

to strike at Rommel's columns with increased regularity. But the Axis drive passed Sollum and Sidi Barrani and the great base at Mersa Matruh, 120 miles within the Egyptian border before increased British resistance and its own exhaustion stopped it on the last good defensive position in front of Alexandria.

Here, on a 40-mile line of defense positions extending from El Alamein to the northern edge of the Qattara Depression, the British halted the Axis' advance.

They had lost upwards of 80,000 men in the campaign, chiefly at Tobruk.

The Third British Offensive in Libya 1942

Through the summer and into the fall of 1942 each side prepared for action and tried out its adversary's strength.

In August the Afrika Korps, together with German and Italian infantry, made a full-scale attack on British positions which was turned back by the well-directed fire of British 25-pounders.

In September, British mobile columns raided Benghazi and Barce, far in rear of Rommel's lines, but on October 3, 1942, Rommel declared in Berlin, "We did not advance in Egypt to be thrown out again. We propose to hold what we have."

The British fleet, together with the RAF and the U.S.AAF, made Rommel's communications with Europe increasingly difficult to maintain.

The AAF Ferry Command flew planes from America to Egypt, and ships carried men and munitions to Red Sea ports.

Among the munitions were late models of U. S. tanks which Rommel admitted "appeared to be of better fighting quality" than their predecessors.

General Alexander, tested at Dunkirk and in Burma, replaced General Auchinleck in command of the Middle East Force, and General Montgomery was put at the head of the British Eighth Army in August 1942.

These actions paved the way for the third British offensive which began at 2130 on October 23, 1942.

The short front and the depth of the close-knit Axis positions and their deep-protecting mine fields supported by antitank defense prevented effective maneuver by armored brigades.

Infantry showed its modern power in an assault by a force 60 per cent of which was British.

Artillery paved the way for the advance by a heavy barrage and sappers (combat engineers) dealt with the mine fields in painstaking fashion.

But it was the infantry which assaulted Axis defenses with bomb and bayonet, took them and held them against repeated armored counterattacks.

Even where local success was not achieved, the enemy was made to suffer (e. g., a British infantry battalion destroyed 37 German tanks before cutting its way out).

By November 4, 1942, the Germans stated that "compared with the ferocity with which the battle of Egypt is being fought, it is considered in Berlin military quarters that the present fighting in Stalingrad is less severe."

The weight of infantry attack and the close cooperation of artillery and air force with them had, before that date, forced the linked defenses of the Axis and gained ground for tank maneuver by advance west of the Qattara bottleneck.

On November 2-3, 1942, British armor completed the breakthrough in a great tank battle at El Aqqair in which 260 Axis tanks were destroyed.

Immediately the remnants of the Axis armored forces withdrew westward, with the British in pursuit.

Rommel's second in command, General von Stumme, had been killed, General von Thoma, commander of the Afrika Korps, was captured together with 8,000 German prisoners and much matériel, while six Italian divisions were encircled in rear of the advancing British columns.

The British maintained their momentum.

Matruh surrendered on November 8, Sidi Barrani (80 miles to the west) on the 9th, Tobruk (another 130 miles to the west) on the 13th, and in another 10 days the British had taken Derna and Mekili, Benghazi and Agedabia and faced Rommel's forces in front of El Agheila.

The scale of British success was indicated by the 59,000 Axis prisoners in British hands on November 15, 1942, 34,000 of whom were Germans.

But a full victory was not yet won.

Rommel's army, depleted in numbers and equipment, was still in existence as a fighting force.

He had refused to sacrifice motorized strength in prolonged resistance after the first considerable British success.

The ground which he occupied was favorable for defense since it denied opportunity for extensive maneuver by motorized forces.

The British had extended their communications as far as was consonant with safety until such time as the coast road and desert tracks could be organized for regular supply and the ports of Tobruk and Benghazi were restored for even limited use by British vessels.

The Area of Conflict Extended—North Africa 1942

The Battle of the Mediterranean entered a new phase on November 7, 1942, when President Roosevelt announced that "a powerful American force equipped with adequate weapons of modern warfare" had landed on the Atlantic and Mediterranean coasts of the French colonies of Morocco and Algeria.

The landing force had proceeded from American and British bases in a convoy of over 500 troop and supply ships, escorted by more than 350 warships. Some U. S. troops were flown 1,400 miles from Britain.

All arrived punctually at the designated landing places save one. That ship limped in late after being torpedoed.

Ten British naval vessels and five U. S. transports were lost during and after the landings.

The landing places had been selected with a view to—

1. Neutralizing Dakar as a possible base for Axis operations by blocking its communications to the North.
2. Establishing sure bases on the Atlantic coast of Morocco from which the Mediterranean landings could be reinforced and supplied.
3. Establishing advanced bases on the Mediterranean from which a drive eastward into Tunisia might be negotiated. A landing in Tunisia alone, at Bizerte or at Tunis, would have been threatened on its flank and rear by Axis troops in Tripolitania and by potential Axis landings in Algeria or Morocco.

Lieutenant General Dwight D. Eisenhower was in supreme

command, with Sir Andrew Cunningham of the Royal Navy, in command of both British and American naval forces.

Landings were made at many small beaches and ports near the three main objectives of Casablanca, Oran, and Algiers.

On the Atlantic coast they covered a 200-mile front from Safi north to Port Lyautey with its valuable airfield.

The operations proceeded "according to plan."

Algiers sought an armistice on November 9, 1942.

On that same day the AAF and the RAF occupied important airfields.

The original landings on the Atlantic coast were supplemented by others at Agadir, Mogador, Mehdia, and Port Lyautey.

Oran, where the stiffest resistance was encountered, was encircled on November 9, 1942.

On the 10th Casablanca, where an American fleet dealt with the resistance of French ships and shore batteries, was occupied, and Oran captured.

Meanwhile the first Mediterranean landings were supplemented by others nearer the Tunisian frontier in the vicinity of Philippeville and Bone.

By November 11, 1942, when Admiral Darlan ordered the French to lay down their arms throughout Algeria and Morocco, the British First Army, together with American motorized detachments, was moving toward the Tunisian frontier, which was crossed at several points a week later as French forces joined the fight against the Axis.

Their objectives were the naval base at Bizerte, and Tunis, which the Axis was reinforcing, together with the east coast towns of Tunisia.

Advance elements of the Allied armies made contact with the enemy on November 18, 1942, pressed through Mateur and entered Djedeida.

The danger of Vichy's warships falling into German hands, and thereby increasing the Allies' difficulties in their North African campaign, was in large measure removed by the scuttling of three quarters of the Toulon fleet at the moment German troops entered that naval base on November 27, 1942.

The airfields and ports at Tunis and Bizerte were bombed by British and American fliers, while Italian ports and industrial centers were attacked by planes based on Britain and North Africa.

By December 1, 1942 British Libyan forces had reached El Agheila and two weeks later were occupying the city.

On December 3, 1942 the U.S. pact with Liberia for use of air-fields was announced. On December 8 the important city of Dakar was opened for use of the Allies.

By the end of the year the Allies had consolidated their positions in the north on the general line Sedjenane, Medjez-el-Bab, Bou Arada, and made contact with the enemy farther to the south. They thereby placed the Axis rail communications in Tunisia in jeopardy.

On November 13, 1942 Admiral Darlan, as High Commissioner, had assumed "responsibility for French interests in Africa." On December 24 Darlan was assassinated at Algiers and on December 27 General Giraud was designated his successor as High Commissioner in French North Africa.

On June 1, 1943, announcement was made of the formation in Algiers of the French Committee of National Liberation with joint de Gaulle-Giraud leadership. Purpose of the Committee was to function as the *de facto* government of all unoccupied French territories and represent France until the nation's liberation.

On August 1, 1943, the French Committee of National Liberation was reorganized with Generals Giraud and de Gaulle as presiding officers. General Giraud was appointed as Commander in Chief of all forces and General de Gaulle was named permanent chairman of the National Defense Committee.

On August 26, 1943 the United States, Great Britain and Canada gave limited recognition to the French Committee of National Liberation.

On August 28, 1943 the Fighting French committee of 1941 was disbanded. Fighting French foreign groups were merged as the Delegation of the French Committee of National Liberation.

OBSERVATIONS ON THE LIBYAN CAMPAIGNS

The area over which the six Libyan offensives have moved extends from the sea on the north to the Libyan Sand Sea (line Marada—Gialo—Giarabub—Siwa Oasis) on the south, and from the Qattara Depression (below sea level) on the east to the narrow coastal plain near El Agheila on the west.

Within this area lie well marked terrain features.

1. A relatively narrow coastal plain through which runs the one good road.
2. An escarpment, at times precipitous, intervening between the coastal plain and the plateau which has been the field for maneuver by motorized armies.
3. The surface of this plateau varies from clay and hard packed sand to rocky ground, but movement in any region involves great wear and tear on vehicles and accents the importance of maintenance crews.

The rugged hills of the Jebel Achdar in northern Cyrenaica constitute the only region in which tank maneuver is impossible. Elsewhere the use of movement is limited only by the factors of time and cost.

4. Wadis (dried up stream beds) are scattered through the area.

Their depth and their precipitous sides often make them impossible to cross, although tracks and trails frequently lie within them and follow their course.

They therefore constitute obstacles to maneuver especially in the case of the Wadi El Feregh which extends eastward for over 100 miles from a point near the coast south of El Agheila on the Gulf of Sirte.

5. West of El Agheila and on the road west toward Homs and Tripoli the coastal road is the only available means for the movement of masses.

Defensive positions on this road can only be outflanked by difficult marches over rough ground interspersed by salt marshes which, after rains, are formidable obstacles.

6. The coastal road is the only paved road in the area (two-way asphalt, except between Sidi Barrani and El Sollum). Elsewhere tracks and trails constitute the means of com-

munication. Some of these follow old caravan routes, others are established by the frequent passage of motorized vehicles in the course of campaigns.

7. Water, essential for men and motors, is extremely scarce. It is plentiful at Bardia, Derna and Benghazi, but these ports are exceptions to the rule of scarcity. A guide book gives the meaning of the Arabic word "Bir" as "well (usually dry)." Such conditions place a heavy premium on the endurance of men and on supply.

The strategy and tactics of the campaigns have frequently been compared to those of naval warfare because

1. The fighting forces cannot subsist upon the resources of the area of war.
2. The movement of motorized forces in the desert depends upon their possession of bases without which movement is impossible.
3. The prime objective is always the destruction of the enemy's forces.

The areas involved in the campaigns have been extended farther and farther into the desert, beyond the scene of the first clashes.

Similarly the British use of the Long Range Desert Patrol and of "Jock" and Commando raids have involved great distances as well as rapid movement.

As the combat area has been extended and as armies progress from their original points of assault in the course of an offensive great strains are produced.

1. Immense burdens are placed on services of supply.
2. Since each supply column and base must be fully protected against sudden attack by land and from the air an offensive cannot prosper unless ample matériel and manpower are available to afford such protection.

The farther an offensive progresses the greater such demands become.

Accordingly it is evident that an offensive cannot succeed unless it is supported and maintained by forces greatly superior, at the decisive point, to those of its opponent.

Since desert warfare can be described as a paradise for the tactician, a heavy premium is placed upon thorough reconnaissance by air and on the ground.

The value of such reconnaissance patrols has been as evident in the war of movement as in assaults on prepared positions. Since the movement of motorized forces is rapid and capable of sudden change in direction, reconnaissance, to be effective, must be constant.

The relationship of defense to attack and the change from one to the other have been frequently demonstrated.

Attack and its exploitation have been the prerequisites to final success, but it is also true that the most conspicuous successes in desert wars have had their foundation in a judicious defensive.

Tanks have been stopped by the use of proper defensive weapons and measures.

Antitank defenses, including antitank guns of all calibres, have at times been overcome by the concentrated fire of motorized artillery.

Infantry has, without armored support, not merely held, but advanced and occupied heavily defended ground.

Chapter 5

Campaigns in the U. S. S. R., 1941-1944



On June 22, 1941, the Nazi armies went into action against the U. S. S. R. on Germany's Eastern Front.

German troops began their attack at dawn.

For once Hitler made a declaration of war—half an hour after the first exchange of shots.

This action broke the Soviet-German Non-Aggression Treaty of August 21, 1939, and marked the end of that Soviet-German amity which had prevailed since the treaties of 1922-1926.

In spite of Hitler's repeated denunciations of the Soviets he had himself continued some of the arrangements then made.

Under them the U. S. S. R. had gained German capital and machinery, while Germany had sent Reichswehr officers to the U. S. S. R., both before and after Hitler became Führer, for training in the use of weapons which were forbidden to Germany under the Treaty of Versailles (planes, tanks, and heavy artillery in particular).

The immediate causes for Hitler's action are not sufficiently well established to allow for their complete analysis.

Nevertheless, here, as always, his purpose of achieving world dominion was the great underlying motive.

Here, as always, Hitler was seeking his end in opportunistic fashion.

Similarly the exact nature of the Soviet attitude towards Germany since the Pact of 1939 is not completely clarified.

But facts in the period prior to the Nazi attack suggest the direction in which the wind was blowing on either side of the frontier between Germany and the Soviet Union.

1. Hitler had established himself in advantageous positions in the East.

He had established a protectorate over Slovakia in 1939.

His conquest of Poland gave him military advantages against the U. S. S. R.

His conquest of Norway in 1940 gave him bases useful for operations against the northern ports of the U. S. S. R. He had prevailed upon Hungary, Rumania, and Bulgaria to sign the Pact of Berlin (Axis Alliance) in the period 1940-1941.

German armies were soon well established within their territories.

With the exception of Bulgaria, their own armies were at Hitler's disposal.

Axis forces, chiefly German, had overrun Yugoslavia and Greece in April-May 1941.

The signing of a Non-Aggression Pact by Germany and Turkey on June 18, 1941, improved Hitler's position in the Middle East.

A Treaty between Britain and Turkey had been in existence since October 19, 1939, under which Turkey promised aid in "the event of a war of aggression by a European Power leading to war in the Mediterranean area in which . . . the United Kingdom was involved."

But when Italy attacked Greece on October 28, 1940, Turkey, while reaffirming her alliance with Britain, offered aid "short of war."

It was now clear that she would not act in support of Britain, but only if she were herself attacked.

2. On the other hand the U. S. S. R. had improved her military and diplomatic position since 1939 with apparently defensive purpose.

She had seized the eastern portion of Poland in 1939.

This was essentially the region which Poland had taken from the Soviet Union after the peace treaties of 1919.

In 1939-1940 she had established herself in the Baltic States (Estonia, Lithuania, Latvia) which had been under Soviet control before World War I.

By war on Finland in 1939-1940 she had improved the defensive position of Leningrad by moving the frontier of the U. S. S. R. to the north and west.

In 1940 she forced Rumania to give back Bessarabia.

On April 13, 1941, she signed a five year Non-Aggression Pact with Japan.

If this was observed by Japan it would safeguard the Soviet

Union from the menace of a war with Axis powers on two fronts.

The above facts suggest preparations for eventual action on the part of both Germany and the U. S. S. R.

Further facts suggest even more clearly that the Soviet Union did not see eye to eye with Germany as Hitler extended his power to the east.

When Hungary signed the Pact of Berlin (November 20, 1940) the U. S. S. R. denied that she had approved the action.

When German troops moved into Bulgaria (March 1941) the U. S. S. R. told Bulgaria that the action amounted to an "extension of the war" into the Balkans, and that she could not give the Bulgarian government any support.

When the Nazi attack on Yugoslavia impended, the Soviet Union made a Treaty of Non-Aggression with Yugoslavia (April 5, 1941).

When Hungary joined in the attack on Yugoslavia (April 12, 1941), the U. S. S. R. rebuked her severely.

Clearly, at the very time when the attitude of the United States toward the Soviet Union was still antagonistic and suspicious, a tension was growing between Germany and the U. S. S. R. which, if continued, would soon reach the breaking point.

The break might come at an inconvenient moment for Germany and cause her to face war on two fronts, east and west.

From Hitler's point of view it may have seemed preferable to eliminate the possibility of a war with the U. S. S. R. coming after Britain had recovered, by striking while Britain was still unable to move offensively.

Hitler may have assumed that he might further hoodwink the democracies by striking at the U. S. S. R., a state which some in the democracies rated as great a menace as Nazi Germany, or, in some cases, as even greater.

He may even have gone so far as to cherish the idea that, having disposed of the U. S. S. R., he could "march on London through Moscow."

Moreover, while his reserve stocks of oil had sufficed for his early campaigns, frequent reports of repeated demands upon the Soviet Union for this essential material of modern motorized warfare, suggest strongly that Hitler rated his remaining stocks as insufficient for future purposes. A modern army

marches, not on its belly, but on oil.

All the circumstances surrounding the German attack of June 22, 1941, are confusing and conjectural.

Germany's Material Objectives

However, the objectives, other than military, which Hitler sought to attain are crystal clear.

There was the wheat of the Ukraine.

There were the mines (coal and iron), and the industries in the region of the Dnieper and Don Rivers.

There was the oil of the Caucasus and the Caspian.

There was a vast potential supply of "slave" labor for the "Master Race" in the shape of the Soviet Union's 170,000,000 inhabitants.

To attain these objectives Hitler must break through Soviet defenses, seize critical points, and, above all, destroy the Red armies in the field.

The Campaign June-September 1941

In the months just preceding hostilities Russians and Germans alike had effected heavy concentrations along the frontiers—the Russians with defensive, the Germans, as previously, with offensive purpose.

Topography and communications determined the main lines of the German attacks.

Because of their key positions in respect to communications by road, by rail, and by air the great military objectives were: Leningrad.

Moscow.

Kiev.

Von Leeb advanced along Baltic roads against Leningrad while Finnish armies under General Mannerheim moved against that city from the west and north.

Von Bock commanded the army of the center which was launched against Moscow, skirting the northern edge of the Pripet Marshes.

Grand scale double infiltration enveloped large Red Army forces (in advance of their main defense lines) near Bialystock and again near Minsk.

The attack developed on a front of more than 100 miles, von Bock selecting suitable ground for panzer movements.

The operation was costly to both the Russians and to the Germans, but the latter appear to have attained their immediate objectives.

Von Bock plunged ahead on the road leading to Moscow through Smolensk and Vyasma.

Von Rundstedt moved against Kiev.

His operations were delayed by a lack of good roads in the direction of his advance as well as by difficult terrain.

But he was able to cut to the south and east of Kiev, and to effect the partial disintegration of Budenny's armies.

Von Bock moved from the north and made contact with von Rundstedt east of Kiev.

The city was encircled by mid-September, although its garrison continued fighting.

This action, coupled with the occupation of Smolensk by von Bock, cut the main rail lines of U. S. S. R. running north and south behind their original front.

Of itself it involved the loss to the U. S. S. R. of a valuable industrial area, and gave the invaders the key to the Ukraine.

The extreme flanks of the long Russian line were also attacked.

In the north von Falkenhorst sought in vain to cut the railroad from Moscow and Leningrad to Murmansk by attack through Finland, and threatened to interrupt the flow of supplies through that ice free port.

In the south Rumanian forces which had penetrated Bessarabia put Odessa under siege.

By the end of September 1941

Von Leeb had joined Mannerheim's Finnish forces and had closely besieged Leningrad.

Hitler claimed that the city would be captured within thirty days, but Voroshilov had conserved his strength by falling back rapidly to his main base.

Von Bock had taken Smolensk and widened his threat to Moscow by occupying Gomel to the south of the capital.

Von Rundstedt had occupied Kiev, crossed the Dnieper from that point to the Black Sea, isolated Kharkov on the Don, and pressed eastward to cut off the Crimea.

To impede his advance the Russians dynamited the great dam and hydroelectric works at Dnieperstroi.

At the extreme south of the front, the siege of Odessa, major Soviet naval base on the Black Sea, was intensified.

The Campaign October-November 1941

The German thrusts continued in October and November.

Leningrad was invested, and heavily attacked in October, the Germans claiming that the fall of the city was imminent.

In the center the German drive on Moscow continued from the north and from the south.

Orel and Bryansk (on the south) were taken by October 12.

Kalinin, a junction on the railroad from Moscow to Leningrad, was captured.

By mid-November German advance units had reached points less than 35 miles from the Soviet capital on the north, although they were not present in strength.

In the south

Odessa was taken (October 16).

Kharkov was occupied (October 24) and the industrial areas of the Donetz basin were lost to the Russians.

The Perekop Isthmus (leading to the Crimea) was forced and Sevastopol was subjected to siege (November 15), while Kerch (in the eastern Crimea) was occupied by the Germans.

By November 22 Mariupol (on the Sea of Azov) had been taken and, in a further push to the east, parts of Rostov had fallen into German hands.

On October 2, 1941, Hitler issued an Order of the Day to his troops on the Eastern Front.

He boasted of Germany's occupation of territory twice the size of the Germany of 1933.

He told of German penetration of enemy territory to a depth of about 600 miles.

He declared: "Today begins the last decisive battle of this year. It will hit the enemy destructively . . . and with them the instigator of the entire war, England herself. For if we crush this opponent [U.S.S.R.], we also remove the last English ally on the Continent."

On October 3, 1941, Hitler told the German people and the world that "This enemy [U.S.S.R.] is already broken and will never rise again."

The positions held by the German armies in mid-November

1941, and their current rate of advance suggested that Hitler's prophecies were correct.

Actually the German front was already overextended, but it was to be extended farther before the end of the month.

It is possible, but not certain, that these advances were undertaken to induce Japan to make an immediate entry into the war.

1. They constituted a further display of German vigor, and if additional victories were won Japan might be convinced that the moment was most opportune for action on her part.
2. The German attack might force the U. S. S. R. to bring up reserves from Siberia and thereby encourage Germany's partner to believe that she was immune from attack upon her own shores or upon Manchukuo.

It is also possible that the renewed German attacks were in part designed to cover the German withdrawal to winter positions.

The Soviet Counter Offensive in the Winter of 1941-42

Whatever the causes, the German assaults were launched and reached new high water marks towards Moscow, in the center, and at Rostov in the south.

The latter town was partially occupied on November 22, 1941, in consequence of a frontal attack on the city.

But in the offensive operation which led to this result the Germans failed properly to cover their left flank, and gave the Russians an opening for the first strategically successful counter offensive since September 1939.

Timoshenko had been transferred from Moscow to the command of Red armies in the south and had there received Siberian reinforcements.

He struck hard at von Rundstedt's exposed flank, and re-occupied Rostov on November 29, 1941.

On December 8 (one day after the Japanese had committed themselves to war) Hitler announced that his forces were withdrawing westward to predetermined defensive lines.

The Red armies followed the German retirement closely in the face of stubborn resistance at critical points.

They pressed their attacks so closely as to cause the enemy to lose heavily in matériel and only less heavily in men.

In addition, the winter of 1941-1942, which had set in 2 weeks earlier than usual (about October 15), proved the most severe in a century.

These facts in combination were to wring two confessions from Hitler.

1. He had to admit that the German Staff had formed a false estimate of the situation.

"We had no idea how gigantic the preparations of this enemy were..."

2. He had to admit that German preparations had been faulty.

"...neither the German soldier, the German tank nor the German locomotive was prepared for the sudden onslaught of cold."

He went on to say "On the maintenance of our supplies depended the existence or nonexistence of our armies."

He might have added that his generals had depended for transport upon wheeled vehicles which bogged down, instead of upon half tracks.

Red Army counter offensives on varying scales continued throughout the winter.

Those delivered on the Moscow front restored some of the disrupted lines of communication and removed the German threat to the capital.

In the north, Leningrad was by degrees freed from isolation and some supplies were carried in over the frozen Neva, and (in April) by restored rail service.

At the southern extremity of the line the Red Army advanced from Rostov to Taganrog, but the territory retained by the Germans here and farther north left the Russians with but one north and south railway west of the Urals.

The greatest battle of this period developed around the Red Army's attempt to recapture Kharkov. This, after an early limited tactical success, was thwarted by a large scale German counteroffensive.

Altogether about one-fifth of the territory overrun was recovered.

Sources of Soviet Strength

Quite as important as the territorial gains registered was the fact that the Russians had taken up the offensive after months of bitter defensive actions.

In spite of the losses and disorganization produced by such a campaign the skill of the Red Army Staff enabled them to retain control of the forces at their disposal and to negotiate

successfully the difficult transition from defense to offense. In spite of fearful loss of matériel Soviet organization had been so developed as to provide the supplies without which their Staff could not have mounted their winter offensive.

Notable was the extraordinary efficiency of the Soviet salvage corps which moved onto the battlefield immediately behind the attacking infantry. Reclaimable material was sent to the rear even before the Red Army buried its dead.

Some aid, in the shape of matériel, was sent over dangerous convoy routes to the U. S. S. R. by Britain and the United States in at least partial fulfillment of earlier promises.

Churchill had declared on June 22, 1941, that "Any man or State who fights against Naziism will have our aid. Any man or State who marches with Hitler is our foe."

This general statement was elaborated in the agreement of July 12, 1941, between Britain and the U. S. S. R. which promised mutual support during the war and declared that they would "neither negotiate nor conclude an armistice or treaty of peace without mutual consent."

On June 23, 1941, Sumner Welles (American Acting Secretary of State) stated "In the opinion of this government . . . Any defense against Hitlerism, any rallying of the forces opposing Hitlerism, from whatever source these forces may spring, will hasten the eventual downfall of the present German leaders, and will therefore redound to the benefit of our own defense and security."

Later (August 2, 1941) Mr. Welles informed Mr. Oumansky (Soviet ambassador to the United States) that "the Government of the United States had decided to give all economic assistance practicable for the purpose of strengthening the Soviet Union in its struggle against armed aggression. Hitler's armies are today the chief dangers of the Americas."

In keeping with these statements various arrangements were made beginning in October 1941, and culminating in the Lend-Lease Agreement of June 11, 1942, under which the United States provided loans and materials to the U. S. S. R.

In the final analysis it was the resolute will of the Russian people that made possible their winter offensive.

The Russian people made the war their war.

They burned and otherwise destroyed their property, as the Germans advanced, in strict obedience to Stalin's "scorched earth" orders.

They fought as guerrillas behind the German lines.

Men, women, and children toiled in defense works, on lines of communications, and in factories, providing essential materials.

They fought in the front lines alongside the troops.

They were determined to free their land from the yoke of the invader.

Hitler had not reckoned on the indivisibility of the Russian population and the defense of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics.

Germany Resumes the Offensive in the South 1942

The Red Army's winter offensive did not prevent the Germans from regaining the initiative on one important sector of the fighting front in 1942.

It should be observed, however, that the offensive against Leningrad and the Caucasus differed radically from that of the preceding year.

In 1941 the Germans attacked all along the frontiers in full vigor, seeking the annihilation of the Red Army.

In 1942 the Germans sought a comparatively limited objective—the seizure of Soviet oil supplies and of the means for their distribution.

This limitation of objective was a confession that the plan of campaign in 1941 had failed, and that it had been incorrectly conceived.

The German objective, although limited, was significant.

Oil was vital to the motorized armies of the U. S. S. R. Occupation of the rich fields of the Caucasus and Caspian would constitute a body blow.

Transport was equally vital.

Before the war 60 per cent of the oil from those fields had been distributed by pipe line and by ships on the Black Sea, and 40 per cent by railways.

The loss of Odessa and the isolation of Sevastopol had crippled water transport on the Black Sea.

A German penetration eastward would cripple remaining rail and pipe line transport.

Sevastopol was taken by July 2, 1942, and, freed from its menace to their flank, the German forces moved eastward near the coast.

Rostov (terminus of the pipe line) again fell into their hands and another Soviet (secondary) naval base (Novorossisk) was taken in early September. Marshal Timoshenko's army did not attempt to stand at Rostov, but fell back rapidly toward Stalingrad to the east and the Caucasus range to the south, a strategy sternly criticized in the U.S.S.R. at the time, but vindicated by the ultimate issue of the campaign.

The Maikop oil fields and another pipe line were lost to the U.S.S.R. as the enemy moved on to the northern slopes of the Caucasus, and threatened the oil fields at Grozny.

Further north an eastward drive was begun early in July 1942, which carried the Germans beyond the lines which they held in late November 1941.

They crossed the Don west of Stalingrad and pressed forward against that vital center of communications and of industry on the Volga.

On September 13, 1942, they claimed to have entered the city, and the long siege began during which the Russians again exhibited all their military qualities, and proved that in a modern fortress-city tanks can be stopped.

On September 30, 1943, Hitler declared: "The occupation of Stalingrad will become an immense success. No human being can push us away from that spot. We must hold everything we have and see who tires the soonest."

This was the first public acknowledgment that Germany was henceforth to be mainly on the defensive.

The days appeared dark.

Complaints were voiced in the U.S.S.R. that the "British and American armies were mere bystanders," which were echoed elsewhere in the demand for a "Second Front."

In October Stalin criticized the extent of Allied aid, asked that "The Allies fulfill their obligations fully and on time," and declared that a "Second Front" was "of first rate importance to the U.S.S.R."

On November 7, 1942, United States and British forces opened a second front in Africa.

On November 8, 1942, Hitler told the German nation that his objectives at Stalingrad were "to cut off thirty million tons of [Volga River] traffic, including nine million tons of oil.

There flows the entire wheat [supply] gathered from the Ukraine and Kuban, [and] manganese ore. I wanted to take it!"

This indicated that he no longer expected to be able to destroy the Red Armies.

On November 19, 1942, the Red Army unleashed offensives across the Don northwest of Stalingrad and from positions south of that city.

These actions forced the Axis to engage in "heavy defensive battles" and resulted in the encirclement of 22 enemy divisions west of Stalingrad by November 23, 1942.

At about the same time Churchill disclosed that plans for both the North African and the Stalingrad operations had been discussed during his conferences with Stalin in mid-August.

On November 25, 1942, the Red Army went over to the offensive on the central front in the vicinity of Velikie Luki and Rzhev where penetrations of the Axis lines were effected in stubborn fighting.

About December 16, 1942, a further Soviet offensive was begun in the middle course of the Don which closed in around Millerovo at Voronezh (on the railroad between Moscow and Rostov) a week later.

By the end of December the German Sixth Army at Stalingrad had been entirely surrounded by the Red Army.

Efforts to relieve the entrapped forces by Field Marshall Mannstein were defeated.

The Russian Winter Offensive 1943

On January 18, 1943, the Red Army captured Schlusselburg opening a ten-mile corridor to besieged Leningrad.

Through January the Red Don Army Group commanded by Colonel General Rokossovsky tightened its grip on the German garrison in Stalingrad.

German evacuation of forward positions in the Caucasus began. The oil center, Maikop, was captured by the Russians on January 30, 1943.

On February 2, 1943, the remaining German troops in Stalingrad surrendered.

The German Sixth Army's 330,000 men were captured or destroyed.

This was the greatest German defeat of the war.

Dr. Goebbels proclaimed a period of national mourning in Germany for the "Stalingrad victims."

Some of the captive generals, particularly Major General Seidlitz, later blamed Hitler and Goering for the Stalingrad disaster.

But this loss, big as it was, still left Germany with an army of many millions.

On February 6, 1943, Russian forces broke through to the eastern shore of the Sea of Azov.

On February 7, 1943, Azov was occupied by the Russian forces.

On February 8, 1943, the Russian forces recaptured the important strong point of Kursk after severe fighting in which six German divisions were said to be destroyed.

On February 9, 1943, the Red Army entered Belgorod, rail junction on the line to Kursk.

By the second week in February the German evacuation of the Caucasus was well under way.

On February 12, 1943, the Red Caucasian Army occupied Krasnodar.

Two days later Russian forces entered Rostov, the gateway to the Caucasus and rail center of the Donetz-Don bend.

The Germans managed to hold the Kuban bridgehead, otherwise the Caucasus was freed of enemy troops.

On February 14, 1943, the Red Army captured Voroshilovgrad, in the southern Ukraine, on their drive toward Stalino.

On February 16, 1943, the key industrial and rail-junction city of Kharkov, to the northwest, was recaptured. It had been held by the Germans since October, 1941.

On February 20, 1943, Ostrogozhsk in the northern Ukraine was captured together with 5000 prisoners.

By the end of February the Russian winter offensive had slowed down. An advance of about 150 miles had been made with heavy losses (estimated at 700,000 men) inflicted on the enemy.

The German Counter Offensive in the Ukraine

By March the Russian winter offensive slowed down in bitter fighting near Rzhev.

Field Marshal Mannstein had collected numerous reserve divisions on the Kharkov-Donetz front and counterattacked on March 8.

On March 14, 1943, despite stubborn Russian resistance, the Germans recaptured Kharkov.

Switching their attack northward the Germans encircled a considerable Red Army force at Chuguev, but this unit fought its way out of the trap on March 20, 1943.

On March 21, 1943, the Germans recaptured Belgorod and reached the Donetz River south of Kharkov.

Russian diversionary attacks toward Orel were unsuccessful.

By the end of March 1943 the German attacks in the Donetz River area were checked after heavy fighting.

The ability of the German Army to strike back savagely after a 150-mile retreat showed that it still possessed great power.

The question remained whether or not it possessed enough strength to launch a summer offensive equal to those of 1941 and 1942.

Summer Offensives 1943

During the spring and summer many Russian attacks were made to clear the Nazis from the Kuban bridgehead in the Caucasus.

The objective of these attacks was the naval base of Novorossisk.

Despite heavy fighting the Germans kept a hold on the Kuban position until early fall when their evacuation began.

No major action took place on the Eastern Front until July 5,

1943, when the long-awaited Nazi summer offensive began against Russian forces in the Kursk salient, by a pincer attack north from Belgorod and south from Orel.

They used an estimated force of 14 armored divisions.

The changed relation of forces on the Eastern front is illustrated by the fact that unlike 1941 and 1942, the German Army was unable to make a deep penetration of the Russian position.

The Red Army met this offensive with immediate counter-offensives of its own.

The first Russian counterattack began simultaneously with the German offensive around Belgorod on July 5, 1943.

The savage character of the battle is attested by German reports which say the Russians lost 1,227 tanks in the first four days of fighting, and Russian reports of 1,530 German tanks destroyed in the same period.

On July 13, 1943, the Red Army launched a counteroffensive north and east of Orel, and two days later between Orel and Kursk.

On July 17, 1943, the Red Army launched three other attacks in support of the Orel offensive.

These were south of Leningrad, on a 75-mile front westward from Volkhovo, between Velizh and Demidov on a 40-mile front toward Vitebsk, and in the vicinity of Voroshilovgrad on a 50-mile front headed southwest.

On August 4, 1943, the Red Army counteroffensive reached Belgorod, which fell the next day.

On August 5, 1943, the Red Army captured the important German rail center of Orel on the main railroad to the Black Sea.

On August 7, 1943, a Russian offensive northwest of Kharkov began, and on August 23 the city was recaptured by storm from the north, east and west.

On August 30, 1943, the Russian forces reached the Sea of Azov and reoccupied Taganrog.

Marshal Stalin declared on August 31, 1943, that 500 divisions were involved on both sides in the fighting in Russia.

This indicated that the Germans were utilizing an estimated 230 divisions in Russia as against an estimated 270 Red Army divisions.

It was clear that a great German withdrawal under Russian pressure was on foot with the Dnieper River as the next possible main line of defense.

Red Army Autumn Offensive 1943

Russian pressure on the retreating German armies was kept on all sectors of the front.

On the Voronezh front, September 2, 1943, the occupation of Sumy was announced, and in the Ukraine, on September 6, Konotop fell.

On September 8, 1943, the Donetz Basin was declared free of German forces by recapture of the important steel center of Stalino.

Two days later, Mariupol to the southwest was evacuated by the Germans.

On September 21, 1943, Chernigov fell, cutting the highway to Kiev, and on September 23, Poltava was occupied by the Red Army.

To the north, on September 23-24, 1943, the great German defense and communications center of Smolensk was recaptured, and to the south the Red Army reached the Dnieper River at several points.

On September 25, Russian paratroops occupied a bridgehead across the Dnieper River opposite Pereyslav and across the Desna River below Chernigov.

On September 19, 1943, the Germans began to evacuate the Kuban bridgehead and completed their withdrawal to the Crimea on October 9.

On September 27, 1943, the Red Army fought its way into the suburbs of the great industrial center of Dniepropetrovsk.

On October 7, 1943, the Russians crossed the Sozh River south of Gomel, and began to flank the city.

On October 13, 1943, after seven days of severe fighting on the northern front, the Red Army recaptured Nevel.

The next day, in the Dnieper bend, the Russians took Zapozhie, and by October 21 extended a bridgehead northwest to Petrovo.

On October 23, 1943, the Red Army entered Melitopol, gateway to the Crimea.

On October 25, 1943, after nearly a month of fighting, Russian

forces completed the reoccupation of Dniepropetrovsk. On November 6, 1943, Stalin announced that 257 Axis divisions were fighting in Russia, of which 240 were German.

The Russian Winter Offensive 1943-1944

On November 6, 1943, Kiev, the capital of the Ukraine, was recaptured by the Red Army.

On November 12, 1943, the Russians took Zhitomir, and 5 days later, Korosten. This represented an advance of eighty miles west from Kiev.

On November 19, 1943, the Germans counterattacked in the Kiev bulge and recaptured Zhitomir.

On November 25, 1943, the Russian advance southwest on Dniepropetrovsk was checked near Krivoi Rog.

On November 26, 1943, the Red Army finally took the great German defense base of Gomel.

But the German counteroffensive north of Kiev continued with the capture of Korosten on November 30, 1943.

An agreement between Russia, Britain, and the United States regarding all phases of the war was reached at the Teheran Conference, December 6, 1943.

This ended any German hope of splitting the United Nations or arriving at a "separate peace" with any of them.

On December 6, 1943, the Red Army captured Kremenchug in the Dnieper bend, and a week later Cherkassy was occupied.

On December 20, 1943, the Germans were forced to evacuate the Kherson bridgehead on the lower Dnieper.

The year 1943 ended with a Russian offensive on a 185-mile front west of Kiev.

On January 3, 1944, advance units of the First Ukrainian Army reached the old Polish border.

On January 5, 1944, the Red Army captured Berdichev, important rail center 100 miles west-southwest of Kiev.

On January 5, 1944, the Second Ukrainian Army began a new offensive south-southeast of Kiev directed toward Nazi-held bases along the Dnieper bend.

On January 8, 1944, the Second Ukrainian Army captured Kirovograd.

On January 12, 1944, the First Ukrainian Army captured Sarny, 36 miles inside the prewar Polish border.

On January 15, 1944, Russian troops began a new offensive in the Leningrad and Lake Ilmen areas.

On January 20, 1944, Red Army troops cut off the German corridor to the Gulf of Finland.

On January 22, 1944, the Leningrad-Mga-Kirishi railway was reclaimed by Russian forces.

On January 27, 1944, Leningrad celebrated liberation of Russia's second largest city from two and a half years of German siege.

On January 29, 1944, Red Army troops broke the last German hold on the Moscow-Leningrad railway by capture of Chudovo.

On February 2, 1944, Russian troops entered Estonia, 11 miles north of Narva.

On February 5, 1944, the Germans' last hold on Dnieper River was broken by the Russian capture of Khreshchatik.

On February 8, 1944, Red Army troops captured the manganese center of Nikopol in the Dnieper bend.

On February 11, 1944, Soviet troops captured Shepetovka, junction of five railways 25 miles east of the Polish border.

On February 14, 1944, the Red Army captured Korsun, main German stronghold in the Cherkassy pocket in the middle Dnieper area where 10 German divisions were encircled.

On February 18, 1944, the Russians captured Staraya Russa, 10 miles south of Lake Ilmen and the most easterly point held by Germans in northern Russia.

On February 22, 1944, the Red Army captured Krivoi Rog, iron ore center in the Dnieper bend.

On March 3, 1944, the First Ukrainian Army began a new offensive in southwestern Ukraine.

On March 9, 1944, Russian troops on the Third Ukrainian front cut the north-south railway feeding the Black Sea port.

On March 13, 1944, Red Army troops seized Kherson, 15 miles up the Dnieper from the Black Sea, climaxing a week's drive in which 20,000 Germans were killed and large quantities of war materials were captured.

On March 19, 1944, Red Army troops crossed the Dniester River and entered Bessarabia.

On March 22, 1944, Soviet troops captured the fortified Bug River rail center of Pervomaisk, 110 miles north of Odessa.

By March 24, 1944, the First Ukrainian Army in its drive in the southwest had reached Zaleshchiki on the border of Bukovina.

On March 26, 1944, Red Army troops drove the Germans back to the Prut River frontier into Rumania, the southern line from which their invasion into Russia started in 1941. German re-enforcements were poured into Rumania to strengthen Axis defenses of the lower Danube.

On March 28, 1944, the Third Ukrainian Army captured the Black Sea port of Nikolayev, which had been held by the Germans for two and a half years. Russian troops captured Domanevka, 75 miles north of Odessa, and also pushed southwestward to within 45 miles of the Czechoslovakian border.

On March 30, 1944, Red Army forces captured Cernauti.

OBSERVATIONS

The following are some of the notable military developments which should be observed in the long "Battle of Russia."

1. For the first time German armies attacked an enemy whose defensive lines were at a great distance from the decisive objects of the German attack.
2. A "buffer area" received and distributed the shock of the German assault.

This was particularly true in the gaps between great natural obstacles, in which areas alone were true Blitzkrieg operations possible.

Field works, antiaircraft, and antitank defenses, organized defenses within forest areas and fortress cities (Leningrad, Smolensk, Moscow, Odessa) prevented any break through on the Soviet front comparable to that made by the Germans at Sedan in 1940.

3. The Russian areas were so vast that all the Red Army forces attacked could not be fixed in their positions by the German assault.

The direct lines of Soviet retreat might be blocked, but lateral maneuver was still possible, and many troops escaped the German traps.

Battles of annihilation were, therefore, impossible, and iso-

lated Red Army troops, reinforced by guerrillas, harassed the German rear areas.

Such action reduced German mobility, because mobility can only be developed from a protected base.

4. Hitler boasted at the time that some German divisions had marched 1,200 to 1,800 miles between June and October.

Later he was to acknowledge the heavy toll which such constant movement took of machines and of men's energies.

5. Modern cities proved the nemesis of the tank.

Their bombed ruins afforded cover to the defenders and presented major obstacles to panzer assault.

Rifle and mortar, grenade and bayonet came into their own.

6. To mount a prolonged offensive by motorized troops great masses of supplies are necessary.

Supply vehicles serving the attack to which the Germans were committed blocked the roads of the forward areas and prevented the arrival of others.

Without replenishment of supplies and relief for the men first engaged, the offensive must, perforce, wear itself out.

7. Hitler thought that a decisive victory could be won in a maximum of five to six months.

During the autumn of 1941 the total facilities of supply were employed to move fighting materials forward.

When the time limit originally fixed expired without a victory, the Germans were forced to devote their entire services of supply to the provision of winter necessities—housing, heavy clothing, fuel, etc. Partly on that account they had to cease offensive operations.

8. In spite of their great strength concentrated against the U. S. S. R., the Germans' margin of ascendancy in tanks and planes was less than in their previous campaigns.

9. Moreover, granting that no staff can foresee and provide for every campaign eventuality, the German Staff did not foresee such conditions as they encountered at Leningrad.

The novel conditions of city defense demanded the use of

siege trains which had not been sufficiently foreseen by the German strategists, who had calculated that high velocity warfare would eliminate siege warfare, and consequently were short of siege artillery.

10. Blitzkrieg demands a continuous, unlimited offensive which strikes, and, if repulsed at any point, strikes again elsewhere. The U.S.S.R.'s distances made such procedure difficult. When the Germans concentrated their forces to reduce Kiev, Smolensk, and Odessa, that very concentration reduced their freedom to engage in maneuver which is the essence of motorized warfare.
11. The campaigns of 1942 in Russia showed that the Wehrmacht did not possess sufficient strength to make a strong attack in more than one large sector of the front.
12. The strong offensive that was made was checked by the Russians at Stalingrad and turned into a major disaster to Germany when the German Sixth Army was surrounded and destroyed or captured.
13. Germany did not possess sufficient strength to attempt more than a brief offensive in the summer of 1943 on the Kursk-Belgorod front, and this was met by an instant Russian counteroffensive.
14. When the year 1943 ended, the Russian Army had driven the Germans across the Dnieper and was approaching the borders of old Poland and threatening Bessarabia; it had regained captured territory a thousand miles long and several hundred miles deep.
15. The German Army still retained its old capacity for swift and intelligent counter action, but it showed no ability to cope with the Russian multiple offensives.
16. German air strength in the East was cut down because of the necessity to defend the Reich from Allied strategic bombing.
17. In 1943 Marshal Stalin announced that the Red Army was now superior to the Wehrmacht in all phases of war.

Chapter 6

The Tunisian Campaign



The Campaign Opens

On November 8, 1942, American and British forces began their landing at many points on the coasts of French Morocco and Algeria.

French resistance ceased on November 11, and French troops of General Giraud, eventually over 50,000 in number, were soon fighting alongside the Allied units which hurried eastward in an attempt to win Bizerte and Tunis before these main Axis positions could be strengthened by reinforcements and matériel from Europe.

The Allies Rush for Tunis

In late November forward Allied elements which had participated in a swift, gambler's advance, reached points within 10 miles of Tunis, but were unable to establish a front there.

Von Arnim's Axis armies were speedily reinforced and supplied by sea and air over short routes from their Italian bases.

Possible aims of the Axis were:

1. Retaining their African bridgehead.
2. Providing an avenue of escape for Rommel's retreating troops.
3. Winning time to perfect their European defenses by fighting a delaying action in Tunisia.

The nearest Allied source of supply and reinforcement was 1,500 miles away.

The North African lines of communication immediately available for Allied use were long (over 500 miles), damaged, and inadequate, and their use at the outset of the campaign was limited by heavy rains which likewise hampered the operations of troops and planes at the front.

Nevertheless, supply, particularly of ammunition, was maintained throughout the campaign, even when the burden was increased by the opening of Allied offensive actions in mid-March 1943.

A Quick Decision Denied to the Allies

Before the end of the year it was evident that the Allies could not win a quick decision in Tunisia.

Von Arnim's forces recovered the advanced positions which American, British, and French troops had briefly held on the roads to Bizerte and Tunis, and the Tunisian front was stabilized in positions on the general line from Sedjenane through Medjez el Bab and Bou Arada to the mountainous region of the Grand Dorsal in the east.

Extension of the Allied Lines

In January 1943 the Allies extended their positions to the south as their planes began a bombardment of the enemy's Tunisian and Italian bases and their naval and air attacks on Axis shipping were stepped up.

Ground actions developed near Pont du Fahs (on the road to Tunis), Ousseltia (on the road to Sousse), Faid (on the road to Sfax), and Maknassy (on the road to Mahares).

The British Eighth Army and the French Close in From Libya

Meanwhile the British Eighth Army, which had advanced from El Alamein in Egypt to Sirte in Tripolitania between October 23 and December 25, 1942, continued its pursuit of Rommel's Axis forces.

On January 18, 1943 General Montgomery's troops occupied Misurata and 5 days later, exactly 3 months after the battle of El Alamein began, they entered Tripoli.

A Fighting French column under General Leclerc, which had crossed a thousand miles of desert from Lake Chad, made touch with a camel corps of General Giraud's forces and with patrols of the Eighth Army some 500 miles south of Tripoli (January 19-20, 1943).

Together the French forces marched north on Montgomery's desert flank, and occupied Fort Saint, in the extreme south

of Tunisia (January 26, 1943), as the Eighth Army crossed the Tunisian frontier near the sea (January 30, 1943).

Unified Command of the Allied Forces Perfected

On February 11, 1943 the eventual junction of the Allied armies in North Africa was anticipated by a further unification of command.

General Eisenhower was freed from his responsibilities as commander of the European Theater of Operations, made a full general and given command over all forces in North Africa including the British Eighth Army. General Alexander (British) was made Deputy Commander in charge of all forces east of Algiers, Sir Andrew Cunningham (British) commander of all naval forces, and Air Marshal Tedder (British), Air Chief Mediterranean Theater, with Major General Spaatz (U. S. A.) as Deputy Chief of Staff.

The Axis Foray Against Tebessa

As the Allies were settling into positions on their long front, Von Arnim and Rommel, who enjoyed the advantages of interior lines, engaged in a local offensive.

At dawn on February 14, 1943 they launched their troops against the American forces west of Faid Pass and in front of Gafsa.

The Axis attack from this quarter was unexpected, and Allied reserves were not disposed in a fashion to meet it promptly. Strong thrusts developed through Faid Pass in the direction of Sbeitla and through Sened on the road to Gafsa.

The American positions immediately west of the Pass were overrun and Gafsa had to be abandoned.

Counterattacks by troops who lacked battle experience failed to remedy the situation in the days which followed.

The Germans and Italians, moving west from Faid Pass, forced the Americans from Sbeitla after heavy fighting.

In their advance in the south they occupied Gafsa, and, moving northwest from that point, forced the Allies to abandon Feriana, to withdraw to Kasserine, and to readjust their positions to the north in the region of Fondouk and Pichon.

On February 20, a further Axis attack gave them possession of Kasserine Pass, and threatened the new American base at Tebessa some 30 miles to the west.

The Axis Advance Stopped

Meanwhile British infantry and armor had been brought to Thala on the northern flank of the German advance, while American infantry and artillery concentrated on the threatened position by forced marches.

Rommel's thrust against Thala on February 22 was stopped by British tanks and infantry backed by U. S. artillery.

Axis attacks delivered the same day upon Sbiba and in the direction of Tebessa made little progress.

Their advance had reached its high water mark.

On February 23 Rommel began his withdrawal.

The Allies used all available types of aircraft to pound his eastward moving columns, and pursued vigorously on the ground.

They were delayed by Rommel's effective use of armor and artillery and of extensive minefields skillfully disposed to cover the Axis withdrawal, but on February 25 they had won through Kasserine Pass.

But Rommel was able to break contact and to establish his forces at Hadjeb el Aioun, Sidi bou Zid and Gafsa where American forces had been concentrated prior to the attack on February 14, and Berlin announced (February 26) that "our offensive operations in Central Tunisia have been concluded."

The Axis foray had inflicted losses upon the Allies. Furthermore it, at least temporarily, reduced the danger that the lines of communication between Von Arnim and Rommel might be cut through by a further Allied advance from Gafsa and Faid.

Realignment of Positions in Tunisia

While the Axis attack on Central Tunisia was under way the British Eighth Army had reestablished contact with Rommel's forces and established themselves in Foun Tathouine and in front of Medinine facing the Mareth Line (February 18).

In early March the Americans retook Sbeitla (March 1) and the French occupied Nefta (March 3) and Tozeur (March 8) on the northern shores of Chott Djerid and on the southern flank of the reorganized American II Corps. On the other hand Von Arnim was able to wrest Sedjenane from the British in the north in a local offensive.

The Battles for the Mareth Positions

Rommel's forces in their hill positions among the old French defenses of the Mareth Line were threatened in front and on their right flank by the British Eighth Army. French and Americans menaced their lines of communications north of the Chott Djerid.

A further forced withdrawal of Rommel's command was imminent.

To reduce the pressure to which his front was subjected, and possibly to disengage his forces and facilitate their removal northward, the German Field Marshal attacked.

On March 4, 1943 he drove at Montgomery from the northern end of the Mareth Line, but his armor suffered such loss that he was forced to retire to the heights near Toujane and Hallouf whence he had launched his assault. (Soon after, about March 15, Rommel was called back to Germany, ostensibly on sick leave.)

The Allies then made a series of coordinated forward moves in which Americans, French, and British shared.

When the Americans retook Gafsa (March 17) and advanced thence to El Guettar (March 18) and to Maknassy (March 23) they again threatened the Axis lines of communication extending from north to south, and forced the enemy to defend that area as well as his positions in the Mareth Line. Axis troops and armor employed there to meet General Patton's troops reduced the Axis forces available to meet the attacking British Eighth Army farther south.

When the Fighting French appeared in the vicinity of Ksar Rhilane (March 12) their action constituted a possible threat to the rear of the Mareth Line: a threat which was enlarged as British forces joined them.

When the Eighth Army attacked the Mareth Line in force on the night of March 20-21 they fixed the remaining Axis forces there in a fashion which facilitated the rapid advance of Lieutenant General Freyberg's New Zealand column through Ksar Rhilane to its violent attack upon El Hamma (March 26) to the north and west of the Axis' positions. This flanking movement in turn forced the enemy to withdraw from the Mareth Line (March 26) and to abandon Mareth, Toujane, and Matama (March 28).

By March 30 the entire Mareth position, together with El Hamma, Gabes, Methouia, and Oudref to the north, were in British hands. During the preceding ten days the Eighth Army had taken 8,000 prisoners.

The Allies Attack Axis Positions From Coast to Coast

The French continued offensive actions in the closing days of March.

In the north they made local gains in the Ousseltia region and recaptured Tamera and Sedjenane near the northern coast. In the south they threatened Kebili by an advance from the desert, and a Fighting French contingent moved with the British Eighth Army in the attack and pursuit of Axis forces in rear of the Mareth Line.

The coordination of all the Allied forces in North Africa was improved when patrols of the American II Corps, operating east of El Guettar, made contact with like elements of the British Eighth Army 15 miles east of that place on April 7, five months after the North African landings began.

Thereafter it was possible to supply Montgomery's troops from North African bases.

Although the burden on lines of communication from the ports to the front was increased, an immense saving of time and tonnage was effected since the roundabout route around the Cape to Egypt and west from Egypt was no longer essential. The transfer of troops from one front to the other was also possible.

Between April 3 and April 6

General Giraud's Moroccans occupied Cap Serrat on the northern coast of Tunisia,

The British First Army began offensive operations in the Medjez-el-Bab area fronting Tunis,

General Patton's II Corps moved forward east of El Guettar on the road to Gabes on the east coast.

At 0430 on April 6, 1943 Indian and British troops of the British Eighth Army, assaulted the Oued el Akharit positions extending inland from the coast some 17 miles north of Gabes.

Contact with the withdrawing Germans and Italians had been reestablished earlier. Now the British attacked the enemy's

new defensive positions disposed along a natural obstacle. This assault prospered in spite of strong counterattacks, and early on April 7 the position was carried and the British pursuit of the Axis was resumed. 9,500 prisoners were taken, and Mahares, Sfax and Sousse were occupied by April 12. Axis forces took up new defensive positions on the coast near Enfidaville.

Coincident with the action at Oued el Akharit an attempt by American and British forces to break through Fondouk and Kairouan to the coast (April 8), and so to cut off the German withdrawal, failed, although Kairouan was occupied by April 12.

Attacks From Air and Sea

No respite was given to Von Arnim and his Axis forces.

Their Tunisian airfields and bases, their retreating columns, and their lines of communication with Italy were subjected to intensified attack from the air and sea.

In two days, April 18-19, 70 troop carrying Ju-52s and 24 of their fighter escorts were shot down over the Sicilian straits.

Air attacks were extended to Axis bases on the Italian mainland and Italian islands.

Their weight was acknowledged by Mussolini, who proclaimed on April 16 that Sicily, Sardinia, Pantelleria, and Lampedusa were "operation areas."

Ground Attacks Develop Along the Entire Front

On the ground Allied forces attacked again and again.

In front of Medjez el Bab the British First Army, reinforced by three divisions transferred from the Eighth Army, took and held the commanding height of Djebel Ang on April 16 in their advance on the north side of the Medjerda valley. By the 25 Long Stop Hill (Djebel el Ahmera) was theirs after 5 days of violent attacks and counterattacks.

On about April 16 the American II Corps, now under Major General Bradley, had been moved 150 miles from its previous positions in the south to the Beja area in the north.

On April 23-24, it went into action astride the road from Sedjenane to Mateur, with Moroccans advancing on its left.

On April 26 it attacked along the road from Beja to Mateur

which was destined to be the line of its major effort in days to come.

That same day the French XIX Corps stormed through mountainous terrain and, with British support, drove against Pont du Fahs.

Enfidaville, where Axis forces were concentrated, was occupied by the British Eighth Army in a night attack on April 19-20, and slow but steady progress was made thereafter in wresting mountain positions from the Axis.

The Allies Exploit Their Initial Successes

At the end of April 1943, therefore, the initiative was completely in the hands of the Allies who were employing it to the full.

The British Eighth Army was threatening the southern flank of the Axis positions which were now so few and so constricted as to make maneuver difficult.

In the north the Allies were moving through the parallel valleys of the Mela, the Djoumine, the Medjerda, and the Miliane against key positions in the plains before Bizerte and Tunis.

Americans and French threatened Mateur from positions east of Sedjenane and Beja.

The British First Army menaced Tebourba from Medjez-el-Bab and struggled to move northeast from Bou Arada against bitter opposition.

The French XIX Corps imperilled Pont du Fahs by their forward movement.

Axis airpower was driven from the skies as coordinated Allied attacks were pushed home in the climax of the six-month campaign.

French Goumiers moved along the coast as Americans stormed the hills commanding the road to Mateur and the British slugged away among the heights abreast of the roads from Medjez el Bab to Tunis.

Hill 609 (Djebel Tahent) was finally taken by troops of the American II Corps on May 1 after 2 days of bitter fighting.

On May 3 Americans and French closed to within 13 miles of Bizerte on the north of Lake Achkel, while to the south of it Americans took Mateur itself.

"After 10 days of relentless pressure and much heavy fighting American troops have forced the enemy in the north

sector to evacuate all his forward positions." (Allied Headquarters in North Africa, communiqué, May 4, 1943.) Ferryville, and Bizerte as well, were brought under the fire of American 155s, and Tebourba lay within the jaws of Anglo-American pincers as the grand climax approached.

The Battle for Tunisia Enters Its Final Phase

On May 5-6, 1943 the British First Army loosed a concentrated attack designed to smash through to Tunis along the 10-mile front between the roads leading to Tunis from Medjez el Bab via Tebourba and Massicault.

British divisions, supported by an intense artillery barrage and by 1,200 sorties on the part of the American Twelfth Air Force, occupied Massicault on the afternoon of May 6. Axis resistance, hitherto exceedingly stiff, was relatively weak, suggesting that troops had been withdrawn to strengthen the Enfidaville lines, or that they were evacuating the threatened area west of Tunis.

On the same day that the British entered Massicault the Americans took Djebel Achkel, a commanding height on the southern shores of the lake of that name, and the French improved their positions east of Pont du Fahs.

The next day, May 7, the Axis positions collapsed along the entire front.

Tunis was entered by the British at 1450. Tebourba was, for the moment, bypassed along with other centers of Axis resistance in front of Tunis.

Ferryville was cleared by the American II Corps at 1600.

Bizerte was first entered by forward elements, American and French, at 1555.

General Giraud's men and units of the British Eighth Army occupied Pont du Fahs.

"Unconditional surrender," as stipulated at the Allied conference at Casablanca in January 1943, were the only terms offered the defeated enemy, 50,000 of whom were rounded up between May 7 and May 9.

The Concluding Actions

The Allies exploited their victories of May 7 relentlessly.

It was fully in their power to do so since "on the whole front, except for the entrance to the Cap Bon peninsula, enemy

resistance has appeared to be thoroughly demoralized.... No enemy aircraft has been seen over Tunisia, and the German Air Force appears to have withdrawn from the battle." (Allied Headquarters in North Africa, communiqué, May 9, 1943.)

From Bizerte and Mateur, Americans moved east to join with British columns coming west from Tunis. Other swiftly moving British units swept east from the capital toward the entrance of the Cap Bon peninsula, while the French and the British Eighth Army closed in on the Axis southern flank at Zaghouan and Djedem.

On May 10 it was announced that "In Northern Tunisia all organized fighting ended on the American II Corps front at 1100 yesterday, the terms of surrender being unconditional."

Berlin sought to bolster the morale of the home front by insisting that "German troops were fighting until the last cartridge was spent," although mass surrenders and the mounting list of captured equipment contradicted their propaganda.

Allied air supremacy, coupled with a close inshore and offshore naval blockade of Cap Bon, and of Italian Pantelleria as well, made certain that there would be no Axis Dunkirk.

The British First Army broke through to the coast at Hammamet and swept north, fighting a last tank battle at the key road junction of Grombalia on May 10 and further segmenting Axis resistance.

Von Arnim was captured near Ste. Marie du Zit by Gurkhas from the North West Frontier of India while British armored patrols made a complete circuit of Cap Bon on May 11.

Pockets of resistance alone remained after the surrender (May 13) of the Italians who had continued resistance north of Enfidaville.

Finale

Three communiqués marked the end of the Tunisian campaign on May 13, 1943.

The first two exhibit the Axis' desire to gloss over their defeat by reference to the stout resistance of their troops and the length of their African campaigns. The third is a statement of fact on the part of the victors.

1. "The heroic struggle of German and Italian Africa detachments today came to an honorable conclusion." (German, May 13, 1943.)
2. "Thus after 35 months of resistance the African battle has come to an end." (Italian, May 13, 1943.)
3. "No Axis forces remain in North Africa who are not prisoners in our hands. The last remaining elements surrendered at 1145 May 13." (Allied Headquarters in North Africa, communiqué, May 14, 1943.)

The Germans and Italians had employed 15 combat divisions plus supporting troops in the campaign.

Their casualties totaled 323,000 since March 21, 1943, according to Allied Headquarters in North Africa.

30,000 killed, 27,000 wounded, 266,000 captured, including 14 German and 4 Italian generals.

The total of Allied casualties were less than 70,000.

U. S. casualties since November 8, 1942, totaled 18,738; 2,574 killed, 9,437 wounded, 1,620 missing, 5,107 reported as prisoners of war.

British casualties since January 30, 1943, totaled 35,000 (11,500 in the Eighth Army and 23,500 in the First Army) according to Prime Minister Churchill's statement on June 9. (Since June 10, 1941 British casualties in Africa totaled 220,000.)

Chapter 7

United Nations Counteroffensives Against Japan, 1943-1944



- I. ALLIED OFFENSIVE IN SOUTH PACIFIC AREA, 1943
- II. ALLIED OFFENSIVE IN CENTRAL PACIFIC AREA
- III. ALLIED OFFENSIVES IN THE CHINA, BURMA, INDIA AREA
- IV. OFFENSIVE ACTION IN THE SOUTHWEST PACIFIC AREA
- V. ALLIED OFFENSIVE IN ALASKA DEFENSE COMMAND

By the beginning of 1943 the initial advantage which Japan had gained in the war from her surprise attack, advance preparations and concentration of force, levelled off.

The United Nations had risen to the defense and now began to pour more and more men and matériel into the Pacific theater for a limited counteroffensive.

The scope of the Pacific theater was so vast, extending from Alaska westward to include Hawaii, New Guinea, the South Pacific Islands, Australia, China, and India, that for purposes of command and operations the territory was divided into these areas:

1. South Pacific area.
2. Central Pacific area.
3. China, Burma, India area.
4. Southwest Pacific area.
5. Alaska Defense Command

1: ALLIED OFFENSIVE IN SOUTH PACIFIC AREA, 1943

On August 7, 1942, amphibious forces of U.S. Marines had established a beachhead on Guadalcanal Island, in the southeastern Solomons, and with Army reinforcements won con-

trol of the east central coast by the end of the year.

On January 21, 1943, Major General Alexander M. Patch, U.S. Army, assumed command of the forces on Guadalcanal, relieving Major General Alexander A. Vandegrift, U.S. Marines Corps.

On January 10, 1943, U.S. troops renewed their offensive on the island, with the aid of artillery barrage and air cover. That night, January 10-11, U.S. torpedoboats turned back a flotilla of Japanese destroyers attempting to land reinforcements.

On January 23, 1943, U.S. troops captured Kokumbona, seven miles west of Henderson Field. As this force advanced westward, towards the end of the month Japanese destroyers began to evacuate troops.

On January 29, 1943, enemy aircraft struck at an American task force convoying troop transports to Guadalcanal and severely damaged the cruiser *Chicago*, which was sunk the next day during another enemy air attack.

On February 1, 1943, Japanese divebombers sank the U.S. destroyer *De Haven*. Two enemy destroyers were believed sunk and another hit.

On February 9, 1943, after the junction of Allied forces at Cape Esperance, all organized enemy resistance ceased. Tokyo admitted that 16,734 Japanese troops and 139 planes had been lost on Guadalcanal. A U.S. Navy spokesman estimated that Japanese losses in the Solomons since August 7, 1942 ran from 30,000 to 50,000 men, 1,100 planes and 72 ships.

After the Japanese abandoned their positions on Guadalcanal, they established new bases and strengthened old positions in the Solomons.

Important air bases of Vila on Kolombangara Island and Munda on New Georgia Island, were bombed almost daily by Allied planes.

Air Activity over Solomon Islands

By March 1, 1943, enemy air activity had increased in the entire South Pacific area.

Allied air forces of American and Australian planes operated

over a semicircle centered in north Australia. Expeditions were made, daily and nightly, for reconnaissance purposes and to bomb enemy air and naval bases.

On April 7, 1943, American transports and their naval and air escorts were attacked near Guadalcanal by a large Japanese air force.

American losses were a destroyer, a tanker, two small craft and seven planes.

Thirty-seven Japanese planes were downed.

On June 7 and 12, 1943, near Russell Island, Japanese planes engaged an American force. The enemy losses were placed at 44 planes against Allied losses of 13.

On June 16, 1943, a Japanese force of 120 bombers and fighters attacked a convoy of Allied ships at anchor off Guadalcanal. A force of 104 Allied planes fought off the enemy, downing 77 of their planes; Allied ships claimed 16 more, and AA fire 1, making total enemy plane losses 94. However, 1 cargo vessel and one LST were damaged.

During this period Japan's strongest air forces seemed to be employed in the Solomons.

Allied Offensive Against New Georgia

During June 1943, Allied forces in possession of Guadalcanal prepared for attack against the main Japanese base on New Georgia Island, 180 miles northwest.

On June 30, 1943 the main Allied expeditionary force landed on Rendova Island, five miles south of the Japanese base on Munda on New Georgia.

Fierce air battles over Rendova, coincident with the landing, on June 30, 1943, resulted in downing 101 Japanese planes against a loss of 17 U.S. planes.

On July 1, 1943, Viru Harbor in New Georgia was taken.

On the nights of July 5-6, and July 12-13, 1943, Allied naval forces attacked Japanese ships in Kula Gulf and inflicted severe enemy losses.

Allied air forces caught Japanese ships in the Buin area the morning of July 17, sinking one cruiser and two destroyers and downing 49 enemy planes.

The night of July 19-20, 1943 and next morning, a Japanese convoy off Kolombangara Island was attacked by U.S. planes. An enemy light cruiser and a destroyer were sunk.

On August 5, 1943, after heavy ground fighting and repeated air attacks Allied forces captured Munda.

On August 25, 1943, the Japanese abandoned Bairoko Harbor, 10 miles north of Munda.

Allied Operations on Bougainville

On October 6, 1943, Allied troops occupied the Jap base at Vila on Kolombangara Island.

During the next week the Japanese withdrew their troops from the Kolombangara bases, suffering heavy losses from Allied air and naval attacks.

Bougainville and Choiseul Island were the only Japanese bases left in the Solomons.

On October 25, 1943, the Allied offensive started against Bougainville, and on November 1 an expedition landed at Empress Augusta Bay.

Before dawn, November 2, 1943, American naval forces engaged Japanese naval forces in the longest night battle ever fought by American ships. Enemy losses were five ships sunk and four damaged.

On November 7 and 8, 1943, both Allied and Japanese reinforcements were landed at Empress Augusta Bay.

Throughout November and December of 1943 Allied forces continued ground operations against the Japanese on Bougainville Island, assisted by naval bombing of the coastal area and repeated bombing of the forward area by U.S. air forces.

On February 14, 1944, American and New Zealand troops occupied the Green Islands in the Solomons group, isolating Japanese forces on Bougainville, Choiseul, Shortland and Buka Islands from their supply base at Rabaul, New Britain.

Action in the Caroline and Marianas Islands

On January 17, 1944, U.S. planes made a first raid on the island of Kusaie in the Caroline group. Kusaie is 780 miles east-southwest of Truk, Japan's important naval base.

On February 16-17, 1944, U.S. naval task forces repaid Japan's surprise attack on Pearl Harbor by striking heavy blows at Truk. Forty enemy ships were sunk or damaged.

On February 22, 1944, U.S. navy task forces attacked Japanese bases in the Marianas Islands, destroying 135 enemy planes.

On March 15, 1944, U.S. land-based bombers made a first raid on Japanese military installations on Truk Island.

On March 29, 1944, forces of the U.S. Pacific Fleet attacked the Palau Islands, west of Truk.

On March 31, 1944, land-based U.S. planes again attacked Truk.

II: ALLIED OFFENSIVE IN CENTRAL PACIFIC AREA

In the beginning of 1943 the Japanese were firmly established in bases in the Central Pacific Islands.

The Japanese had occupied the Gilbert Islands after Pearl Harbor and established new airfields there.

There were Japanese air and naval bases in the Marshall Islands.

From its Central Pacific and South Pacific bases the enemy made reconnaissance flights over U.S. bases on Canton Island, New Caledonia and the New Hebrides.

On May 5, 1943, U.S. bombers raided Wake Island.

On the night of July 24-25 and on July 27, 1943, U.S. Liberators bombed Wake Island and destroyed 16 enemy planes, with probable destruction of 10 and damage to 8.

On October 5-6, 1943, U.S. planes attacked Wake Island, damaging installations and destroying 71 enemy planes (40 in the air and 31 on the ground).

In mid-November, 1943, intensive bombing of the Gilbert and Marshall Islands began.

On November 21, 1943, U.S. Marines and Army forces landed on Makin and Tarawa, in the Gilbert Islands.

Enemy resistance on Makin was soon overcome but the Japanese fought fiercely on Tarawa. U.S. forces captured Tarawa at a cost of 1,026 Americans killed and 2,557 wounded.

Enemy resistance in the Gilberts ended on November 24, 1943. 5,000 Japanese troops had been killed.

On December 5, (E. longitude), 1943, U.S. task forces attacked the Marshall Islands, sinking six enemy ships and downing 72 planes. Two days later it was announced that a U.S. submarine sank 11 Japanese ships in the area.

The year 1943 ended with a steady increase of Allied offensive action in the Central Pacific area.

On January 21 and 22, 1944, U.S. Army and Navy bombers heavily attacked the Marshall Islands.

On January 31, 1944, after repeated attacks by carrier task forces, U.S. troops landed and established beachheads in the Marshalls, on Roi and Kwajalein Islands.

On February 2, 1944, U.S. Marines captured Roi Island and on February 3 they took Namur Island. Both are in the Marshall group.

On February 8, 1944, U.S. Marines completed the capture and occupation of Kwajalein Island.

On February 16, 1944, U.S. forces invaded Eniwetok Atoll in the Marshalls.

III. ALLIED OFFENSIVES IN THE CHINA, BURMA, INDIA AREA

On January 4, 1943, U.S. and British planes operating from India raided Mandalay.

On January 9, 1943, China-based U.S. planes bombed Japan-occupied Burma.

On January 11 the United States and Great Britain relinquished extra-territorial and other special rights in China. The Sino-American treaty was signed in Washington by U.S. Secretary of State Cordell Hull and Chinese Ambassador Dr. Wei Tao-Ming. The British Treaty, which does not affect Hong Kong, was signed in Chungking by British Ambassador Sir Horace James Seymour and Dr. T. V. Soong, Chinese Foreign Minister.

The difficulty of getting war supplies into China, because of The Japanese blockade, established with the occupation of coastal cities and control of the Burma road, reduced the activity of American air forces in China during the first months of 1943.

On February 8, 1943, a force of 60 Japanese planes raided Kweilin, China.

On February 11, 1943, United States and British generals concluded a ten-day conference with Generalissimo Chiang Kai-shek in Chungking and Field Marshal Sir Archibald P. Wavell in New Delhi. "A complete accord was reached in coordination of offensive plans."

It was announced on March 7 that Chinese forces in Yunnan turned the Japanese back toward Burma.

On March 23, 1943, U.S. planes raided the Japanese airfield at Meiktila in Burma.

During March, 1943, British-Indian forces made a series of attacks along the Burmese-Indian frontier. This short campaign took a total of 4,200 Allied lives.

On May 20, 1943, U.S. planes pounded Japanese supply lines in Central Burma.

On May 25, 1943, Japanese forces in China advanced west of Ichang, toward Chungking.

The rainy season in Burma (August-November) slowed down ground operations, but heavy Allied aerial attacks continued, especially on railroads, bridges and industrial plants.

On August 1, 1943, the Japanese military commander in Burma officially discontinued military government. The newly created Burma government signed a treaty of alliance with Japan and declared war on the United States and the British Empire.

On August 26, 1943, U.S. air forces raided Hong Kong for the second time in two days.

On November 4-6, 1943, AAF and RAF bombers attacked Akyab, the principal Japanese base in Burma. More than 250 tons were dropped by American flyers alone during a continuous assault lasting 36 hours.

Early in November Japan started a seasonal raid to the Lake Tungting area.

From November 20 to 26, 1943 Japanese forces numbering 100,000 were encircled near Changteh, North Hunan Province, and 8,400 Japanese were killed.

On December 2, 1943, the Chinese claimed to have regained possession of Changteh, but on December 7, admitted it had been lost again on the 3rd.

By January 14, 1944, the Allied forces which earlier had begun an advance on Akyab, Burma, had occupied Maungdaw and

were pushing southward toward their objective.

On January 15, 1944, allied ground forces opened a new front in Northern Burma, about 200 miles below the Hukawng Valley front.

On January 30, 1944, Chinese troops captured Taro, important ferry station on the Tanai River in Northern Burma.

On February 5, 1944, U.S. bombers attacked a Japanese convoy off the southeast coast of China and sank five vessels.

On February 13, 1944, U.S. Liberators bombed railroad yards and repair shops at Vinh in French Indo-China.

On February 13, 1944, Japanese troops in Burma captured a British position on the Arakan front.

On February 16, 1944, British troops reinforced Indian troops on the Arakan front and Japanese forces were beaten back.

On February 29, 1944, Admiral Lord Louis Mountbatten described the result of Allied operations in western Burma as a "complete victory."

By March 7, 1944, American infantrymen were cooperating with Chinese troops in fighting the Japanese in the Hukawng Valley of North Burma.

On March 11, 1944, U.S. planes bombed the Kowloon docks at Hong Kong and points in French Indo-China.

On March 11, 1944, British and Indian troops took Buthedaung, thereby gaining control of both ends of the Maungdaw-Buthedaung road vital in the drive on Akyab.

During the first week in March 1944, U.S. gliders and transport planes landed Allied troops behind the Japanese lines in North-Central Burma.

On March 16-17, 1944, Japanese troops began a major drive toward India's Manipur State and Japanese planes bombed Imphal, Manipur's capital.

By March 20, 1944, Chinese-American forces had routed all Japanese resistance in the Hukawng Valley of Northern Burma.

On March 22, 1944, Japanese troops crossed the frontier of Manipur State. On March 23 a second Japanese force entered Manipur and advanced to within 25 miles of Imphal.

On March 26, 1944, British Commandos reached a point 47 miles from the main Japanese base on the Burma Road.

On March 27, 1944, a fourth Japanese force pushed into

Manipur, toward the capital.

IV. OFFENSIVE ACTION IN THE SOUTHWEST PACIFIC AREA

Conclusion of Papuan Campaign

The closing months of 1942 had witnessed the failure of a Japanese offensive against Port Moresby in southeastern New Guinea. Fierce Allied counterattacks had driven the Japanese back to Buna and Sanananda. The Japanese forces at Buna were destroyed by January 3, 1943.

Only two enemy bases, Lae and Salamaua, were left in southeastern New Guinea.

From January 6 to 9, 1943, Allied bombers sank 3 Japanese transports which were trying to land reinforcements on Lae, and downed or damaged 157 enemy planes.

By January 19, 1943, Allied ground forces had taken Sanananda Village, Cape Killerton and Wye Point. Capture of 117 Japanese, on January 23, 1943, officially ended ground fighting in the Papuan Campaign.

From Australia, General Douglas MacArthur stated that the Papuan Campaign had convinced him that the widespread use of air power against Japan was the surest way to bring about her defeat.

Activation of Sixth Army

On February 18, 1943, U.S. Secretary of War Henry L. Stimson announced the activation of the American Sixth Army in Australia and New Guinea. Lieutenant General Walter Krueger was named commander.

Battle of the Bismarck Sea

On March 1, 1943, the Japanese set about reinforcing Lae and Salamaua by moving troops in from New Britain.

On March 2, 1943, U.S. Liberators and Fortresses attacked and dispersed, after inflicting severe damage, a Japanese convoy in the Bismarck Sea, headed for Lae.

The next day, Allied bombers attacked remnants of this convoy. Eighteen Japanese vessels were sunk in this battle.

The estimated 15,000 troops aboard were believed "sunk or killed almost to a man." Seventy-one Japanese planes were shot out of action, as compared to an Allied loss of one bomber and three fighters.

The battle was termed a "major disaster to the enemy" which temporarily, at least, "dislocated" his campaign in the Southwest Pacific.

Increased Japanese Air Strength

Following this naval defeat in the Battle of the Bismarck Sea, there were many indications that the Japanese were increasing their air strength in the Southwest Pacific.

Forces of Japanese planes raided Oro Bay, New Guinea, repeatedly during March, April and May, 1943.

On April 12, 1943, a force of 100 Japanese planes raided Port Moresby, New Guinea. Two days later an equal enemy force attacked Milne Bay, Southeast New Guinea, sinking 1 and damaging 2 Allied ships.

In mid-May the Chief of Staff of the U.S. Fifth Air Force stated, in Washington, that the Japanese had twice as many planes as the Allies in the New Guinea area.

Japanese aerial offensives, however, lessened in both frequency and intensity after May, 1943.

Japanese Aerial Raids on Australia

At the beginning of the war in the Pacific the possibility of a Japanese invasion of mainland points in Australia could not be discounted. Darwin and other North Australian cities were within bombing range of Japanese planes operating from New Guinea bases. On March 15, 1943, and again on May 2, for the 54th time, Darwin was attacked by Japanese bombers and fighters. Enemy losses totaled about 30 planes.

After conferences with General Douglas MacArthur in Sydney on June 7, 1943, the Prime Minister of Australia, Mr. John Curtin, stated that the danger of a Japanese invasion of Australia had passed and that "the pressure on this country is to be thrown back on the enemy."

However, infrequent Japanese air raids continued to be carried out against Darwin during the remainder of the year.

Australian Casualties

Australian troops played a most important role in the fighting in New Guinea. Early in April, 1943, the Australian Army Minister, F. M. Forde, reported that Australian troops had suffered 6,212 casualties in New Guinea: 2,110 killed or dead, 3,833 wounded and 269 missing.

Japanese Reinforcement of New Guinea

In order for Japan to hold her New Guinea bases in the face of steadily increasing Allied opposition, it was necessary that reinforcements of troops and supplies be received regularly. The job of convoying troops to island bases had to continue.

On March 13, 1943, U.S. Fortresses bombed an eight-ship Japanese convoy approaching Wewak, New Guinea, and inflicted heavy losses. U.S. planes also bombed Wewak, where Japanese reinforcements were being landed.

On the southwest side of New Guinea directly northwest of Australia, the Japanese were at the same time reinforcing ground troops and constructing air fields.

Allied Attacks on Rabaul, New Britain in Early 1943

In the beginning of 1943, Rabaul was one of Japan's strongest and most important bases. From Rabaul the Japanese sent reinforcements to New Guinea and launched air attacks.

Twelve times in January 1943, and nine times in February, Allied bombers struck at Rabaul and inflicted heavy damage on Japanese ships in the harbor.

On March 23, 1943, the formations of U.S. Flying Fortresses bombed three airdromes at Rabaul and scored many hits on the 250 Japanese planes concentrated there.

Action at Wewak, New Guinea

Late in March, 1943, Japanese activity along the northeast coast of New Guinea, from Wewak south to Salamaua, increased

so much that the majority of Allied bombing raids were concentrated in this area.

On March 30, 1943, Allied heavy bombers intercepted and damaged a Japanese convoy of four destroyers trying to run supplies into Finschhafen. The Finschhafen docks were bombed.

On April 15, 1943, and again on April 24, a Japanese convoy was attacked off Wewak, New Guinea, by Allied bombers.

On May 7, 8 and 9, 1943, Allied planes bombed Madang, Finschhafen, Babo, Wewak and the Mubo area of New Guinea.

Allied Landing at Nassau Bay .

In Southeast New Guinea, activity shifted from the air to the ground in mid-summer of 1943.

On the night of June 29-30, 1943, U.S. troops landed at Nassau Bay, 11 miles southwest of Salamaua. Other Allied forces occupied the Trobriand and Woodlark Islands by July 1.

General Douglas MacArthur flew from Australia to Nassau Bay to direct operations.

From the beginning of this invasion, the Allies had aerial supremacy and were able to provide an "air umbrella" to protect the operations of U.S. and Australian ground forces.

Allied bombers strafed and bombed Japanese positions on Salamaua repeatedly. Hundreds of tons of explosives were dropped on enemy installations.

Japanese counterattacks were repulsed time and again. By July 13, 1943, U.S. and Australian forces had captured Mubo, the Japanese base southwest of Salamaua on New Guinea.

On August 9, General MacArthur announced that recent Allied victories "have been decisive of the final result in the Pacific."

The Battle for Salamaua

U.S. and Australian forces in New Guinea continued to drive steadily forward toward Salamaua. Allied bombers attacked the base until it was declared "in ruins," but still the Japanese held out.

On August 16-17, 1943, Allied bombers attacked four airdromes at Wewak, New Guinea, dropping ten thousand bombs on a ground concentration of 225 Japanese aircraft. One hundred twenty planes were destroyed and 50 damaged. An estimated 1,500 fliers and ground crewmen were killed.

In a second raid on Wewak on August 21, 1943, 70 Japanese planes were destroyed.

By August 23, 1943, the Japanese had retreated from their forward positions into Salamaua, and Allied forces had seized the ridge dominating the enemy airdrome.

In the latter part of 1943, Japan began to develop Hollandia, 183 miles from Wewak, as a major air base.

On September 2, 1943, Allied planes dispersed an enemy convoy near Wewak. Two days later, additional Allied forces landed on Huon Gulf, east of Lae and isolated Japanese bases at Lae and Salamaua.

From September 4 to 11, 1943, Allied forces overcame heavy enemy resistance. On the 11th the Japanese were driven from Salamaua, and by the 16th Allied troops had occupied Lae.

On September 22, 1943, Allied troops landed "in force" six miles above Finschhafen and by October 2, the Australian 9th Division had captured the Japanese base at Finschhafen.

The victories of General MacArthur's forces at Salamaua, Lae and Finschhafen broke Japan's grip on New Guinea. However, there were still Japanese forces entrenched in positions in the interior, and ground fighting in the Ramu Valley, around Satelberg and Bonga and on the Huon Peninsula, continued into December of 1943.

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On January 2, 1944, American Sixth Army units landed at Saidor on the north coast of New Guinea, 55 miles from the large Japanese base of Madang.

Object of the Saidor landing was to move American forces in to join Australian units already in the mountains of the upper Ramu Valley and encircle Japanese troops.

On February 11, 1944, Australian and American forces on New Guinea met 14 miles east of Saidor. This gave Allied troops complete control of the Huon Peninsula.

On February 28, 1944, and again on March 1, the Japanese base at Wewak and the Madang area of New Guinea were heavily bombed.

On March 7, 1944, a small American amphibious force landed behind the Japanese lines 30 miles northwest of Saidor.

On March 22, 1944, Allied planes sank two Japanese freighters, seven coastal ships and 23 barges off Wewak.

Later Raids on Rabaul, New Britain

After consolidating their positions in coastal bases in Southeast New Guinea, the United Nations turned their attention back to enemy-held Rabaul, New Britain.

On October 12, 1943, all available Allied planes in the area attacked Rabaul. In this raid 177 Japanese planes were downed, and three destroyers, three merchant ships and 113 small cargo and harbor vessels were sunk.

On November 1, American Marines landed at Empress Augusta Bay on Bougainville's southwestern coast.

The same day Allied troops began their right wing advance on Bougainville. To protect this movement, and because it was known that enemy reinforcements were reaching Rabaul, Allied planes bombed the town and harbor. Three

destroyers and eight merchant ships were sunk, and 67 Japanese planes downed.

On November 11, 1943, more than 200 carrier planes and Army Liberators raided Rabaul, sinking three warships and downing 31 Japanese planes.

On November 25, 1943 small U.S. Naval forces sank four Japanese destroyers between Rabaul and the northern Solomons.

Invasion of Arawe and Cape Gloucester

By mid-December of 1943 Allied forces were ready for a ground invasion of New Britain. This invasion was preceded, on December 14, by the dropping of 350 tons of bombs on Arawe, in Southwest New Britain.

The next day, following a pre-invasion bombing by Allied naval forces, the U.S. Sixth Army invaded Arawe Peninsula.

By December 20, 1943, all Japanese were cleared from the area.

On December 26, 1943, U.S. Marines landed on points east and west of Cape Gloucester, after Allied bombing raids had prepared the way with 1,300 tons of bombs. This operation was under the direction of General Douglas MacArthur and Lieutenant General Walter Krueger, with Marines under the direct command of Major General William H. Rupertus.

By December 30, 1943 the marines had completed their capture of Cape Gloucester.

On January 4, 1944, U.S. Marines began a drive against Japanese positions at Borgen Bay, east of Cape Gloucester.

On January 14, 1944, U.S. Marines captured Hill 660 in the Borgen Bay area after a ten day assault.

On January 23, 1944, U.S. planes raided Lakuni airdrome at Rabaul, New Britain and shot down 46 Japanese planes.

On January 24, in a second raid on Rabaul a Japanese tanker, five cargo ships and 24 fighter planes were destroyed.

By February 10, 1944, all Japanese warships had withdrawn from the great base at Rabaul which for months had been bombed almost daily.

On the night of February 19-20, 1944, Allied planes sank nine vessels of a Japanese convoy attempting to escape from

Rabaul, New Britain. In the Arawe area a Japanese gunboat, 11 landing craft and a supply dump were captured.

On February 24, 1944, American Marines from Cape Gloucester and infantrymen from Arawe joined forces, thereby securing American control of the western end of New Britain. On March 6, 1944, U.S. Marines landed near Talasea on New Britain Island, 110 miles north of Cape Gloucester, and by March 9 had captured that village.

1943 Attacks on Netherlands East Indies

A significant development in aerial warfare in the Southwest Pacific area during 1943 was the long-range bombing attacks on the Netherlands Indies by Allied planes based in Australia.

On June 23, 1943, Allied Liberators made a 2,000-mile round-trip flight from Australia to Makassar, Celebes Island, and dropped 38 tons of bombs.

On July 22, 1943, Allied Liberators bombed Java, scoring hits on an oil refinery, docks and railway facilities at Surabaya.

During August, 1943, U.S. Liberators made three round-trip flights of 2,500 miles to Borneo, dropping explosives on the oil port of Balikpapen and destroying four vessels in the harbor.

During September and October, 1943, Allied bombers made seven flights from Australia to Celebes to attack docks, warehouses and fuel depots at Makassar.

These air raids on the Netherlands Indies during 1943 signified the growing Allied air power in this area and pointed the way to similar but heavier attacks in 1944.

Raids on New Ireland and the Admiralties

On January 16, 1944, Navy patrol planes attacked a Japanese convoy off Kavieng, New Ireland. One ship was sunk and two set afire.

On February 15 and 16, 1944, Allied planes attacked a Japanese convoy off New Ireland, sinking 12 cargo vessels, a destroyer and three gunboats.

On January 24, 1944, Allied planes attacked Japanese installa-

tions in the Admiralty Islands.

On February 12, 1944, U.S. forces occupied Umboi Island in the strait between New Britain and New Guinea.

On February 29, 1944, U.S. troops landed on Los Negros Island in the Admiralty group. By March 4, all Japanese resistance had been routed.

On March 18, 1944, U. S. troops captured Larengau on Manus Island. This completed occupation of all vital areas in the Admiralty Islands.

V. ALLIED OFFENSIVE IN ALASKA DEFENSE COMMAND

On January 12, 1943, U.S. forces occupied Amchitka Island in the Aleutians, 71 miles from Kiska.

Japan continued to reinforce and strengthen its bases on Kiska and Attu Islands in the Aleutians, captured in June 1942.

Allied reconnaissance flights disclosed, on March 11, 1943, that an airfield suitable for fighter planes was under construction at Kiska.

Previous Allied reconnaissance flights had revealed construction of an airfield on Attu suitable for bombers.

Daily raids—sometimes totaling as many as 10 or 15 within a 24-hour period—were made by U.S. and Canadian fliers against Kiska during the opening months of 1943.

Capture of Attu

On May 11, 1943, U.S. forces landed on opposite sides of Attu Island, on Holtz and Massacre Bays.

The two bays, five miles apart, were connected by an overland pass which, at the beginning of operations, was occupied by enemy forces.

Continuous fog prevented decisive help from American naval and air forces during early stages of the invasion.

On May 17-18, 1943, U.S. ground troops overcame enemy resistance in the pass and joined forces.

On May 31, 1943, after three weeks of stubborn resistance, American forces captured Chichagof Harbor, last and strongest base on Attu Island.

Japanese dead on Attu numbered 1,900. Twenty-nine

prisoners were taken. American casualties were 342 dead, 1,135 wounded and 58 missing.

U.S. Occupation of Kiska

On June 4, 1943, U.S. bombers carried out five raids on Kiska Island. On the 26th and 28th heavy bombing attacks were repeated.

During July, 1943, U.S. planes raided Kiska at least eight times.

On the night of August 14-15, 1943, a great U.S. naval armada arrived off Kiska and heavily bombed and shelled the Island.

When U.S. and Canadian troops went ashore, they found the enemy gone.

In the unobserved withdrawal of 10,000 troops who had been reported on Kiska, the Japanese accomplished a surprising military feat, but at the same time their abandonment of the last base in this area could be considered an Allied victory.

Chapter 8

The Invasion of Sicily and Italy



Pantelleria and Lesser Italian Islands

On May 24, 1943, eleven days after the surrender of the last Axis units in Tunisia, the communiqué from Allied headquarters in North Africa stated that the "Northwest African Air Forces yesterday directed their attention to the island of Pantelleria."

It was not the first time that this, and other Italian island stepping stones to Italy, had received Allied attention.

As early as May 11, 1943, a close blockade had been set about Pantelleria whose strength was said to rival that of much bombed British Malta, and Allied fliers had bombed it previously.

The aerial attack was sustained and supplemented by bombardments from the sea on May 30-31, June 1, 2, 3, 5, and 8, 1943. The bombing was of the heaviest variety and of precision type.

It inflicted great damage and demoralized the Italian garrison and its commander.

On June 8, 1943 the first demand was made for the island's unconditional surrender.

It was disregarded by the Italian commander, but the Allied communiqué declared that "Pantelleria was bombed and bombarded on this date and will continue to be subjected to bombing, bombardment and blockade."

After disregarding a second demand for surrender, the garrison capitulated on the afternoon of June 11, 1943, on orders from Mussolini. Over 11,000 prisoners were taken.

Landing forces were standing by off the island in the last stages of the aerial and naval bombardment.

They landed after the surrender.

Air power plus no great will to resist had been mainly responsible for the capitulation of a heavily fortified island some forty square miles in area.

President Roosevelt took this occasion to warn the Italian people that "the war must continue as long as Mussolini ruled and Germans dominated Italian life."

Pantelleria's smaller sister island of Lampedusa, which was raided by light British surface units on the night of June 6-7, 1943, surrendered June 12, 1943 at 1730, after 25 hours of intermittent naval and air bombardment.

Other small Italian islands in the vicinity experienced a similar fate.

Linosa surrendered on June 13, 1943 and the following day British forces occupied the tiny rock of Lampione.

These captures, rounding out the North African conquests, together with the improved position of Allied sea power, and the effects produced by repeated bombings of Sicily and Sardinia, assisted in freeing the Mediterranean for Allied use as a line of communications.

The Allied Invasion of Sicily

The conquest of Sicily was planned at the Casablanca Conference on January 15, 1943.

After the completion of operations in North Africa and the conquest of the Mediterranean Islands, the full weight of Allied air power was employed to prepare for the Sicilian landings. Under Secretary of War Patterson has stated that Allied Air Forces flew a total of 50,000 sorties in preparation for and in support of the troops in Sicily.

A total of 350,000 pounds of bombs was dropped on Messina on July 3, 1943.

On July 9, 1943, the invasion of Sicily began with the descent of Allied airborne troops and parachutists at 2210.

This was followed by heavy air assaults on Axis concentrations and other targets.

On July 10, 1943, Allied troops of the Fifteenth Army Group commanded by General Sir Harold Alexander landed on the east coast of Sicily.

The Fifteenth Army Group was made up of the American

Seventh Army commanded by Lieutenant General George S. Patton, and the British Eighth Army commanded by Lieutenant General Sir Bernard L. Montgomery.

The successful completion of the initial landings was announced as taking place at 0600.

President Roosevelt assured Pope Pius XII that every effort would be made to spare churches and religious institutions in Italy.

On the night of July 10-11, 1943, the British Eighth Army captured Syracuse with its port facilities undamaged.

On July 12, 1943, American and Canadian forces in southeast Sicily made contact.

On July 13, 1943, the British Eighth Army captured the port of Augusta intact and the U.S. Seventh Army captured Biscari airfield east of Gela.

From July 12 to 15, 1943, bombing operations against lines of communications in Italy were carried out by the Allied Strategic Air Force.

On July 16, 1943, a bombardment of Catania was carried out by naval forces.

Axis captives for the first six days of fighting on Sicily were reported at 20,000.

President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Churchill called upon Italy to decide whether "Italians shall die for Mussolini and Hitler, or live for Italy and civilization."

On July 17, 1943, the heaviest bombing attack to date in the Middle East was made on Naples.

U.S. Seventh Army took Argrigento, the British Eighth Army captured Scordia.

On July 18, 1943, General Alexander annulled Fascist laws in Sicily. Lieutenant Colonel Charles Poletti, former Governor of New York, named Senior Civic Affairs Officer of the Allied Military government.

On July 19, 1943, Rome was bombed by 500 Allied planes.

On July 20, 1943, Mussolini and Hitler concluded a three-day conference in northern Italy.

On July 22, 1943, the U.S. Seventh Army entered Palermo without opposition.

On July 23, 1943, the U.S. Seventh Army occupied Marsala and Trapani.

On July 25-August 5, 1943, heavy fighting continued by the British Eighth Army in the Catania sector against determined German resistance.

Axis troops prepared for withdrawal to Etna line.

On the night of July 25-26, heavy German counterattacks in the central sector were repulsed.

On July 25, 1943, Cefalu was occupied by the U.S. Seventh Army.

The end of the Fascist regime in Italy was announced on July 25, 1943, by General Badoglio who was appointed as Prime Minister in place of Mussolini.

Badoglio told the Italian people they "were at war and would remain at war."

Allied leaders restated their demand for the unconditional surrender of Italy; and the German forces in Italy had to be defeated.

On July 27, 1943, the U.S. Seventh Army captured Castelbuono, and, on the 28th Nicosia. On the 29th St. Pollina was taken.

Canadian forces in Sicily captured Leonforte and attacked Agira on July 28.

On July 29, 1943, General Eisenhower appealed to the Italian people to accept peace "under honorable conditions."

On July 30, 1943, the U.S. Seventh Army captured Mistretta with 10,000 prisoners and the Canadian forces drove past Assora.

On August 3, 1943, the Seventh Army occupied Caronia.

On August 5, 1943, after heavy fighting the principal German defense bastion at Catania fell to the troops of the British Eighth Army.

On August 6, 1943, the U.S. Seventh Army captured Troina after days of bitter fighting.

On August 9, 1943, United States and British forces made contact in the central sector near Maletto.

On August 10, 1943, amphibian troops of the U.S. Seventh Army landed behind the Axis lines east of Cape Orlando and made contact with the main body of Allied troops on August 13, 1943.

On August 12, 1943, the German High Command announced

the beginning of "a systematic withdrawal to a shortened bridgehead position in Sicily."

By this date a total of 125,000 Axis prisoners in large part Italian were in Allied hands.

Allied air and naval action was undertaken to hamper German evacuation plans.

On August 13, 1943, the British Eighth Army occupied Fiumefreddo and Piedimonte while the U.S. Seventh Army advanced to Oliveri.

On the night of August 15-16, 1943, British commando units landed eight miles south of Messina and a U.S. amphibious force landed near Milazzo.

At this time the British Eighth Army occupied a line running from Taormina to Kaggi to Castiglione.

On August 17, 1943, advance elements of the U.S. Seventh Army entered Messina and made contact with the British Eighth Army.

All organized Axis resistance on Sicily was at an end.

Total enemy prisoners amounted to 135,000 men with an estimated 32,000 casualties.

Allied casualties in the Sicilian campaign were placed at 25,000.

The Invasion of Italy

On August 18, 1943, Allied leaders at the Quebec Conference asked General Eisenhower to advance the date of the invasion of Italy in view of the end of the Fascist regime and other indications of an Italian collapse.

On September 3, 1943, the British Eighth Army under General B. L. Montgomery landed on the east side of the Straits of Messina between Villa San Giovanni and Reggio Calabria.

On September 3, 1943, Italian commissioners signed an armistice with representatives of the Allied Headquarters in Sicily.

This agreement provided:

- (1) For the surrender of the Italian Navy.
- (2) For Italy's ultimate switch to the Allied side.
- (3) For all resources and facilities in Italy to be placed at the disposal of the Allies.

(4) For withholding the announcement of the armistice until September 8, 1943.

On September 4, 1943, a British Commando unit landed near Bagnara.

On September 6, 1943, the British Eighth Army captured Palmi and Delianova.

On September 8, 1943, the announcement of Italy's unconditional surrender was broadcast simultaneously from Rome and Algiers.

On September 9, 1943, the British Eighth Army occupied Taranto, important Italian naval base and port on the heel of the Italian boot.

From September 9-20, Allied forces landed on the Ponziane Islands and occupied the main islands in the Bay of Naples.

On September 9, 1943, the U.S. Fifth Army commanded by Lieutenant General Mark Clark together with British forces landed at Salerno.

General Eisenhower announced that the time had come to "step up to the plate and try for a home run."

The Allied landing at Salerno did not catch the German garrison off guard.

Severe fighting raged at the beachhead from September 9-16 when a German evacuation began.

On September 10, 1943, German troops occupied the city of Rome.

On September 10, 1943, the British Eighth Army reached Pizzo, 55 miles north of Reggio Calabria on the west coast.

On September 11, 1943, the British occupied the important port of Brindisi.

On September 13, 1943, the British Eighth Army occupied the port of Bari.

On September 16, 1943, the Allied High Command announced that 108 Italian warships had surrendered under the terms of the armistice.

On September 16, 1943, the advance elements of the British Eighth Army made contact with patrols of the American Fifth Army near Vallo Della.

The battle of the Salerno bridgehead ended and the advance on Naples began.

On September 18, 1943, the Germans withdrew to a position near Sorrento.

On September 27, 1943, the British Eighth Army occupied the great Italian air base at Foggia.

On October 1, 1943 at 0800 the advance patrols of the Fifth Army entered Naples.

Before retreating the Germans had systematically looted the city of all useful material.

They destroyed many public buildings and wrecked all harbor installations.

They planted a time bomb in the Naples post office which later killed many civilians and soldiers.

By October 1, 1943, the British Eighth Army had reached a line which ran from Montemiletto to San Croce to Larine to Termoli.

American casualties in Italy from September 9, to October 1, 1943, were set at 511 killed, 5,428 wounded and 2,368 missing.

The Occupation of Sardinia and Corsica

The surrender of Italy took place so suddenly that in many areas the Germans were able to disarm Italian troops, but in Sardinia the Italian garrison outnumbered the Germans and expelled them on September 19, 1943.

On September 20, 1943, French Commando units from North Africa landed in Corsica from destroyers.

A bridgehead had been gained at Ajaccio on September 13 when that port was captured by French troops landed from submarines.

German forces in Corsica began a withdrawal to the northern port of Bastia.

On September 20, 1943, the French Committee of National Liberation in Algiers appointed Charle Luizet as Prefect for Corsica.

On September 21, 1943, American Army units were reported in Corsica cooperating with the French.

On October 5, 1943, the last German troops evacuated Bastia under Allied ground and air attack.

The Germans announced that they had occupied the island of Elba.

Political Developments in Italy

On September 8, 1943, Premier Badoglio's armistice-broadcast said that "while Italians would no longer fight the Allies, they would oppose attack from any other quarter."

On September 10, 1943, the Germans occupied the city of Rome.

On September 11, 1943, King Victor Emmanuel and Premier Badoglio from a position behind the Allied lines asked that Italians everywhere oppose German aggression.

On September 11, the terms of the armistice were reported as follows:

1. Italians are to cease hostilities immediately.
2. Italians are to deny use of their facilities to the Germans.
3. All United Nations prisoners and internees are to be turned over at once and protected from the Germans.
4. Warships and aircraft are to be transferred to points designated by the Allies.
5. Italian merchant shipping may be requisitioned as needed.
6. Corsica and all Italian territory to be surrendered immediately for any use the Allies may choose.
7. Italian airfields and ports are to be protected until turned over to the Allies.
8. Italian government is to use its armed forces if necessary to insure compliance with the armistice terms.
9. The Allied commander-in-chief reserves the right to take any action deemed necessary to protect the Allied forces and to prosecute the war, and the Italian government binds itself to take any action which the commander-in-chief may require. The commander-in-chief will establish the Allied Military Government whenever it is deemed necessary.
10. The commander-in-chief has the right to impose the terms for disarmament, demobilization, and demilitarization.
11. Other conditions of a political, economic, and financial nature with which Italy will be bound to comply, will be transmitted later.

On September 12, 1943, the Nazis freed Mussolini, (by airplane) from his place of arrest in Abruzzi Province.

On September 15, 1943, the German radio announced the formation of a new "Republican Fascist Party" regime in Italy under the leadership of Mussolini.

On September 30, 1943, the list of members of Marshal Badoglio's cabinet was announced from Algiers.

On October 2, 1943, Marshal Badoglio announced that an Italian government "on a democratic basis would be established as soon as practicably possible."

On October 12, 1943, Marshal Badoglio declared war on Germany.

Operations in Italy from October 1 to December 31

Hopes for an early Allied advance on Rome were thwarted by a stubborn German defense of the Volturno River line in October.

The Germans enjoyed the advantages of short overland communications.

The mountainous terrain and weather favored the defenders. After heavy fighting from October 12-16, 1943, the Germans withdrew to a new line of resistance.

On October 20, 1943, this line ran: the Gulf of Gaeta — Cancello — Brezza — Fornicola — Dragoni — Piedimonte d'Alifo — Vinchiaturo — San Stefano — Petrella — Mornone — Montecilfone — Petacciato.

Warfare on the Italian front assumed the character of a positional struggle with the Allied armies facing the Germans along the Garigliano and Sangro Rivers in late October and November.

From November 24-30 the British Eighth Army forced a crossing of the Sangro River near its mouth.

The evening of December 2, 1943, the German air force made a surprise raid on the harbor and shipping at Bari sinking 14 and damaging 9 ships.

On December 3, 1943, the U.S. Fifth Army began an attack which capturedd Mounts Difensa and Maggiore by December 9.

On December 6, 1943, the first Italian troops fighting with the Allies entered the line near Mignano.

On December 10, 1943, French forces from North Africa appeared in the Allied line in Italy.

On December 19, 1943, after hard fighting the U.S. Fifth Army captured San Pietro Infine, 9 miles from Cassino.

On December 23, 1943, the British Army reached the outskirts of Ortona but was not able to occupy the whole city until December 28.

On December 23, 1943, the British Eighth Army captured Vezzani, 3 miles southwest of Ortona.

On December 24, 1943, it was announced by President Roosevelt that General Eisenhower had been appointed Allied Commander in Chief of the Invasion Forces.

General Sir Henry Maitland Wilson assumed command in the Mediterranean in Eisenhower's place.

General B. L. Montgomery was named commander of the British Ground Forces in the coming invasion.

Command of the British Eighth Army passed to Lieutenant General Sir O. W. H. Leese.

General Sir Harold Alexander was named commander of Allied Forces in Italy.

On December 25, 1943, the U.S. Fifth Army captured Mt. Sammucro, 6 miles east of Cassino.

The year ended with bitter and indecisive fighting along the whole Italian front.

Operations in Italy from January 1 to March 31, 1944

By the beginning of 1944, the strongly defended town of Cassino had emerged as the first objective of the Allied invasion of Italy.

At the foot of a hill honeycombed with German gun emplacements and machine-gun nests, Cassino stood as a stumbling block to an Allied advance on Rome.

The famous sixth-century Benedictine Monastery and Abbey stood on the heights above Cassino and prevented Allied bombing of the city until it was clearly apparent that the enemy was using both as a fortress.

The Allied offensive against Cassino was destined to be slow and costly, made difficult by extremely bad weather and by the advantage in position which the Germans had.

On January 6, 1944, American troops of the Fifth Army took San Vittore, six miles northwest of Cassino, and Mt. Majo

which cut the enemy's supply line at Viticuso.

On January 15 and 16, 1944, American units of the Fifth Army captured Mt. Trocchio, last mountain obstacle before Cassino, and reached the east bank of the Rapido River two miles from the objective.

On January 18, 1944, American units of the Fifth Army crossed the Garigliano River at the southern end of their trans-peninsular front.

On January 20, 1944, British units of the Fifth Army captured Minturno, two miles inland from the Gulf of Gaeta.

On January 22 and 23, 1944, American and British troops of the Fifth Army made a surprise landing behind the Nazi lines and seized the town of Nettuno, 33 miles south of Rome.

On January 24, 1944, Allied troops occupied Anzio, near Nettuno on the Tyrrhenian Sea. During the following week this beachhead was enlarged and its defenders were reinforced.

On January 30-31, 1944, Allied troops beat back German counterattacks in the vicinity of Cisterna and British troops drove beyond Aprilia and reached Campoleone.

On February 4, 1944, German forces launched the first of what was to be a fierce and continuing counterattack against the Anzio-Nettuno beachhead.

Six German divisions were employed in the drive to wipe out the beachhead and by March 1, 1944 it was estimated that 24,000 Nazis had been killed, wounded or captured there.

Throughout February and March, 1944, both German and Allied forces in the Anzio area were constantly reinforced. However, despite heavy German attacks, Allied troops maintained their beachhead there.

On February 15 and 16, 1944, Allied bombers and artillery blasted the Benedictine Monastery and Abbey on Mt. Cassino. German use of the monastery and abbey as a fortress forced the Allies to this action.

On February 19, 1944, Allied reinforcements entered Cassino. Strong German resistance remained and made necessary house-to-house fighting.

On March 15, 1944, Allied planes dropped 3,500 tons of bombs on the remnants of Cassino and it was bombarded

by artillery.

On March 16, 1944, Allied infantrymen occupied three-fourths of Cassino's ruins.

German forces entrenched in the southwest corner of the town were constantly re-enforced since one road was still open to them.

By the end of March, 1944, the war in Italy appeared to have reached a deadlock.

Operations of Yugoslav Partisans from January 1 to March 31, 1944

By the beginning of 1944, the activities of the Yugoslav Partisans in strategic German-held territory adjacent to Italy were becoming increasingly important. Partisan forces were commanded by Marshal Tito and were dedicated to carrying on the war against the Axis.

On January 1, 1944, Partisans attacked and partially occupied the important town of Banja-Luki in Bosnia but six days later were forced to withdraw.

On January 9, 1944, Germany began a five-pronged drive to clear the Partisans out of western and central Bosnia.

On January 21, 1944, the Partisans recaptured their "capital" of Jajce.

On February 9, 1944, Partisans reported a devastating defeat of German troops and Yugoslav Chetniks south of Sarajevo.

On February 10, 1944, British troops landed on the Dalmatian coast to aid Partisan forces.

On February 18, 1944, Partisan forces crossed the Slovene border into northern Italy between Gorizia and Tolmino. On February 19 they recaptured Grabovo in Montenegro.

On March 10, 1944, British and American Commandos landed on Lissa Island in the Adriatic Sea, off the Yugoslav coast. Partisans and Allied Commandos captured the Adriatic islands of Hvar and Rab during March, 1944.

On March 15, 1944, in their heaviest battle to date, Partisans repulsed a German attempt to break into liberated Slovenian territory and thereby ended the Nazi attempt to recapture rich iron ore territory around Ljubljana.

OBSERVATIONS

1. The invasion of Sicily was the largest single amphibious operation in history.
2. It succeeded in spite of initial Axis superiority in numbers.
3. The loss of Sicily and other Italian islands was the final blow which drove Italy out of the war.
4. The Sicilian campaign completed the Allied control of the Mediterranean sea route.
5. The surrender of Italy came as something of a surprise to the Allied governments.
6. It forced the Allied High Command to advance its schedule of projected operations.
7. The Allied landing at Salerno was something in the nature of a hazard and we discovered that the Germans were not surprised.
8. Allied airpower was an important factor contributing to the final success of the Allied effort at Salerno.
9. The capture of Naples gave the Allies a useful port after its wrecked harbor facilities were repaired.
10. The capture of the great air field at Foggia gave the Allies a splendid base from which to bomb southern and central Europe.
11. The heavy and sustained fighting from October to the end of December showed that the Germans had strong forces in Italy and intended to fight for every inch of ground.
12. The Cassino engagement proved again that no matter how heavy or continuous aerial attack may be, decisive fighting must be done on the ground, by foot soldiers.
13. The activities of Yugoslav Partisans indicated the important resistance to Axis forces which might be expected from similar guerrilla armies in later invasions of occupied countries.

Chapter 9

The War at Sea



In September, 1939, the British and French fleets totaled nearly 2,000,000 tons: Britain had fifteen capital ships, France had seven, and together they had eight aircraft carriers.

In September, 1939, the German fleet totaled 235,000 tons: seven capital ships including three pocket battleships.

Germany had 65 submarines which were her chief striking weapon against the Allies. With them she hoped to break Allied sea power and prevent, or defeat, a blockade.

On September 3, 1939, a German submarine sank the British passenger liner *Athenia*.

On September 18, 1939, a German submarine sank the British ship *Courageous*, an old battleship converted to an aircraft carrier.

On October 14, 1939, a German submarine sank the British battleship *Royal Oak* at Scapa Flow, the main base of the British fleet.

Scuttling of the Graf Spee

On December 13, 1939, the German raider *Admiral Graf Spee* was engaged in battle by the British cruisers *Exeter*, *Ajax* and *Achilles* off the coast of Uruguay.

The *Graf Spee* slipped away into the neutral harbor of Montevideo for repair of serious injuries.

Uruguayan authorities ordered the German commander to leave the harbor on December 17, 1939. He did so, disembarking his crew and scuttling the *Graf Spee* three miles off shore.

On January 20, 1940 the British destroyer *Grenville* was sunk and on the 24th loss of the destroyer *Exmouth* was announced.

On February 19, 1940 the British destroyer *Daring* was lost. During March 1940 British submarines *Ursula* and *Truant* sank the German freighters *Heddernheim* and *Hugo Stinnes* in the Kattegat.

The Battle of Narvik

On April 7, 1940 British reconnaissance planes sighted a German squadron, including battle cruisers, proceeding north off Heligoland.

At once the British fleet put to sea in an attempt to overtake the German squadron.

Bad weather and good luck aided the German fleet in escaping the trap. However, in an engagement with British naval forces on April 10, 1940, a German destroyer, an ammunition carrier and supply ship were sunk and three destroyers were set afire.

On April 13, 1940, in a second engagement at Narvik, nine British destroyers and one battleship pursued the German force up the fiord.

Three German destroyers were sunk, one set afire and three others beached and scuttled by their crew.

Evacuation of Dunkirk

By May 28, 1940 the Belgian Army had surrendered, and in the face of a ruthless German advance French and British troops had withdrawn to the port of Dunkirk.

Only escape for the Allied army of over 350,000 men was evacuation across the English channel.

The combined naval forces of France and Britain undertook this most difficult operation on May 27, 1940, and completed it on June 4, 1940.

Allied forces numbered some 1,000 ships of every description. The ships carried an estimated 335,000 men across to England despite continuous enemy attacks from land, sea and air.

Britain lost six destroyers and 24 small craft in addition to 24,000 tons of merchant shipping. France lost seven destroyers and one supply ship.

The French Fleet

On June 16, 1940, France asked Germany for an armistice.

The loss of French military help was a serious one for Britain.

Loss of the assistance of the French fleet, and the possibility of Germany using it against her, also increased Britain's danger.

Admiral Darlan and other French leaders assured Britain that the French fleet would not be allowed to fall into enemy hands. However, it seemed highly improbable that Germany would let the new French government keep such promises. July 3, 1940, French ships in British waters were boarded and taken over by British detachments.

Also on July 3, 1940, British naval forces at the African port of Oran opened fire on and disabled or destroyed a major portion of the French fleet in harbor there. Fighting was begun only after the French commander had ignored a British ultimatum.

July 8, 1940, a French battleship at Dakar was put out of action. Also on July 8, 1940, the French squadron at Alexandria, Egypt, agreed to the surrender and demobilization of its ships.

The Italian Fleet

Following the collapse of the French fleet the whole burden of naval operations in the important Mediterranean area fell on the British fleet.

The three key points of Gibraltar, Malta and Alexandria had given Britain naval ascendancy in the Mediterranean heretofore.

However, the newly fortified Italian base at Pantelleria and the effectiveness of bombing planes in naval warfare presented serious threats to Britain's ability to retain naval supremacy in the Mediterranean.

On November 11, 1940, the Italian fleet was in Taranto Harbor. Torpedo carrying planes of the Fleet Air Arm of the British Navy attacked it. Two battleships, two cruisers, a destroyer, and supply ships were severely damaged.

British torpedo planes and naval gunfire hit and seriously damaged a large Italian battleship, three cruisers and two destroyers near Sardinia on November 27, 1940.

On December 14, 1940, British planes again bombed the Italian fleet which was sheltered in Naples harbor. Cruisers and destroyers were hit and damaged.

On January 10, 1941, a British convoy encountered two Italian destroyers in the Sicilian channel and sank one. Italian and German fliers attacked the convoy. The British cruiser *Southampton* was lost and the destroyer *Gallant* was damaged.

On January 15, 1941, German planes damaged the British aircraft carrier *Illustrious*.

On February 9, 1941 the British fleet bombarded the port of Genoa. British naval planes bombed Leghorn and Naples.

Axis naval conferences on February 13 and 14, 1941, resulted in an attempt to strengthen Italian naval forces in the Mediterranean.

On March 27, 1941, British air reconnaissance discovered an Italian naval force proceeding eastward from Sicily.

On March 28, 1941 British and Greek ships off Cape Matapan attacked Italian naval forces which had divided into two squadrons. In an engagement lasting all day and night Allied forces sank the Italian cruisers *Pola*, *Zara* and *Fiume* and two destroyers, and seriously damaged the new battleship *Vittorio Veneto*.

Presence of the British aircraft carrier *Formidable* was credited as a decisive factor in this Allied naval victory which was carried out without loss of a man or a ship.

The Battle of the Atlantic, 1941-1942

In late 1941 and during 1942 the British navy suffered serious losses.

On November 14, 1941, the British aircraft carrier *Ark Royal* was sunk.

On November 25, 1941, the British battleship *Barham* was sunk.

In the six-month period November 10, 1941, to May 12, 1942, British destroyers lost numbered 21. During 1942 these losses were partly offset by replacements and arrival of American units.

On May 24, 1941, British air reconnaissance discovered German battleship *Bismarck* in Bergen Harbor. British vessels

intercepted it in the Denmark Strait between Iceland and Greenland and sank it after a 1,750-mile chase in which the British battleship *Hood* was sunk.

From May, 1941, until the spring of 1942 the German fleet avoided all direct clashes with the British fleet. However, German raiders were active and 22 were sunk by the British during 1941.

In the spring of 1941 the German battle cruisers *Scharnhorst* and *Gneisenau* and the heavy cruiser *Prinz Eugen* took shelter in Brest Harbor and remained there until the following year although frequently bombed by the RAF.

On February 11-12, 1942, the three heavy German ships, with a strong destroyer escort, set out in a fog to slip through the English Channel to Heligoland.

British destroyers and planes attacked the German ships on February 12, 1942, but were unable to halt their flight. The three ships joined the new German battleship *Tirpitz* and the aircraft carrier *Graf Zeppelin*.

In attacks by British bombers and torpedo aircraft between February and June 1942 the *Scharnhorst*, the *Gneisenau*, the *Prinz Eugen* and the *Tirpitz* all were damaged.

While British naval forces were able to curb the threat of German surface craft during 1942, the submarine warfare reached a new intensity.

Convoys of ships moved endlessly across the Atlantic and were the favorite prey of German submarines.

American ship losses in the Atlantic also were heavy during the first half of 1942, reaching a total of approximately 325 ships by June 30, 1942. Replacements, though high, were still below the rate of losses.

During 1943, however, Allied naval and air forces so much increased that German sea warfare no longer offered a serious threat.

In late August of 1943, President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Churchill, in a statement on antisubmarine warfare, announced that during May, June and July 90 U-boats had been sunk—an average of almost one a day. During this period Allied losses were so slight that the United Nations' supremacy in the Battle of the Atlantic seemed well established.

Early in 1944, a joint Anglo-American announcement from Washington stated that merchant shipping losses to German U-boats during 1943 were 40% of 1942 sinkings. Almost half of the 1943 losses were in the year's first quarter, 27% in the last six months.

As compared to 1941 sinkings, during the last half of 1943 Allied ship losses averaged one in 1,000 ships against an average, in 1941, of one in 181.

The Defense of Malta

Britain's decision, made early in the war, to hold and defend Malta became a factor of prime importance in the struggle for the Mediterranean during 1941 and 1942.

Malta was invaluable to the British fleet as an emergency port of call and operating base for submarines and light surface craft, and as a bombing base for operations against North Africa and Italy.

Axis air assaults on Malta during April and May 1942, with a force of 600 planes, damaged but failed to demolish its defenses.

On August 11-12, 1942, a strong British convoy bringing supplies to Malta was heavily attacked. The British aircraft carrier *Eagle*, the cruiser *Manchester*, the antiaircraft cruiser *Cairo* and the destroyer *Foresight* were lost.

Despite the fiercest enemy attacks, Malta remained in British hands and retained its importance in military and naval operations in the Mediterranean.

Naval Battles in the Pacific, 1941-1942

In her surprise attack on Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941, Japan delivered a serious blow to the U.S. Pacific fleet on the opening day of the war in the Pacific.

Two U.S. battleships, the *Arizona* and *Oklahoma*, were sunk; four, the *California*, *West Virginia*, *Tennessee* and *Maryland*, were damaged. Three cruisers and 3 destroyers were damaged and a target ship and minelayer were sunk.

On December 10, 1941, the British battleship *Prince of Wales* and the battle cruiser *Repulse* were sunk east of Malaya by Japanese bombers. These were the first capital ships ever to

be sunk, while in full action, by air power alone.

On April 9, 1942, in the Indian Ocean, Japanese flyers sank the British cruisers *Dorsetshire* and *Cornwall*, and on April 10 the British aircraft carrier *Hermes*.

The Battle of Macassar Strait

On January 23, 1942, a force of 100 Japanese ships was sighted moving south through the Strait of Macassar which separates Borneo and Celebes.

On the night of January 23, 1942, American destroyers attacked the Japanese force and sank at least two transports.

On January 24 and 25, 1942, Dutch and U.S. bombers renewed the attack.

Allied cruisers joined in the battle, and with the aid of Dutch and U.S. submarines and bombers inflicted heavy damage.

By January 29, 1942, the Japanese force had an estimated 16 ships sunk and 22 damaged.

The Battle of the Java Sea

Despite losses in the Battle of Macassar Strait, Japanese naval forces gathered in the Java sea about February 25, 1942 for an invasion of Java.

British, U.S., Dutch and Australian naval forces concentrated in the Java Sea to contest the Japanese invasion.

On February 27, 1942, the Allied fleet encountered a Japanese convoy of 40 transports accompanied by two heavy cruisers, seven light cruisers and two destroyer flotillas.

The Japanese naval force which the Allied fleet engaged far outnumbered it and was in every way superior.

During the two-day battle the British destroyers *Electra* and *Jupiter* and the Dutch destroyer *Kortenaer* were lost, the U.S. cruiser *Houston* was sunk, the British cruiser *Exeter* was put out of action, and the Dutch cruisers *De Ruyter* and *Java* were torpedoed.

The Battle of the Java Sea was a serious defeat to Allied naval forces in the southwest Pacific and left Java open to Japanese invasion.

Battle of the Coral Sea

During April 1942 Japan extended her control southeastward in the Pacific, along the fringes of the Coral Sea.

On May 3, 1942, U.S. reconnaissance planes located a strong Japanese naval force on the move. Part of this force was concentrated in the harbor of Tulagi, capital of the Solomon Islands.

On May 4, 1942, planes from a U.S. naval task force attacked the enemy. Practically every enemy ship in Tulagi Harbor was wrecked, and a light cruiser, two destroyers and four gunboats were sunk.

On May 6, 1942, the new Japanese carrier *Ryukaku* was attacked and sunk by U.S. planes.

On May 7, 1942, Japanese planes concentrated their attack on the U.S. carrier *Lexington*. Seriously afire, the *Lexington* had to be abandoned and destroyed. In return, U.S. forces seriously damaged an enemy carrier.

The Battle of Midway

On June 3, 1942, a Japanese naval force heading toward Midway and including three battleships and four carriers, was sighted by U.S. naval aircraft.

During June 3, 4, 5 and 6, 1942, U.S. naval carrier-based aircraft and heavy land-based army bombers pounded the Japanese fleet, which in turn attacked U.S. forces with planes and bombed Midway.

Two Japanese heavy cruisers were sunk on June 6, 1942. Four Japanese carriers and three destroyers were sunk during the battle, and heavy damage was inflicted on three battleships and lighter craft.

The U.S. aircraft carrier *Yorktown* and the destroyer *Hammann* were lost.

The Battles of the Coral Sea and Midway were unprecedented in the history of naval warfare. The opposing ships did not see each other or exchange fire. Their attacks were made entirely by airplanes.

From June to December, 1942, continued naval actions, concentrated in the Solomons area, caused heavy losses to the Japanese.

During 1943 and the first quarter of 1944 naval war in the Pacific, as well as in the Atlantic and Mediterranean, became more closely coordinated with land operations. Naval attacks preceded and accompanied practically all the offensive operations of Allied forces (and they were recorded together.)

However a noteworthy exception to this type of combined operations and also a distinct Allied naval triumph must be cited in the case of the sinking of the *Scharnhorst*.

Sinking of the Scharnhorst

On December 28, 1943, the German battleship *Scharnhorst* was sunk by torpedoes from the British cruiser *Jamaica* after it had been battered by the guns of other British warships. The *Scharnhorst* first was fired upon by the cruisers *Norfolk*, *Sheffield* and *Belfast* when it started to attack a Murmansk-bound convoy. The *Scharnhorst* was followed southward toward the Norwegian coast by the cruisers until the battleship *Duke of York*, the *Jamaica* and four destroyers made contact. The British battleship scored hits with its big guns and closed in while the destroyers attacked with torpedoes. With the *Scharnhorst* afire and nearly at a standstill, the *Jamaica* finished her off. Some survivors were made prisoners of war.

Chapter 10

The Air War, September 1939 to March 31, 1944

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Strategic bombing is a relatively new development in warfare.

The German Luftwaffe was organized and operated primarily as a tactical air force.

As such it contributed directly to the German victories in Poland, Norway, Holland, France, Yugoslavia, and Greece.

When it was employed as a strategical air force during the Battle of Britain, the Luftwaffe failed with heavy losses.

The Battle of Britain showed that qualitative superiority in planes and pilots is a vital factor in air warfare.

In the early stages of the war Germany had overwhelming numerical superiority in the air.

In the two years 1940-41 the Luftwaffe dropped a total of 56,000 tons of bombs on Britain which killed 47,305, wounded 55,658, and left 450,000 people homeless.

The largest single attack on a British city was on London, April 16-17, 1941, when 450 tons of bombs killed over 1,000 people and injured more than 2,000.

These figures give us a standard from which to gauge later British raids on German cities.

Britain entered the air war with a different conception of the proper employment of an air force.

The RAF was organized to carry out strategic as well as tactical bombing.

Early in the war Britain began to produce heavy bombers for attacking strategic targets in Germany. These bombers were equipped with multiple machine guns in power turrets and were capable of carrying a heavy bombload for medium and long distances.

They were designed primarily for night operations although

they were also capable of daylight bombing under certain conditions.

The growth of the RAF's bombing capacity, except for winter quarters when operations were limited by weather, is demonstrated in the following quarterly table of bomb tonnage dropped on Germany.

1. Third quarter	1940	2,750 tons
2. Fourth quarter	1940	2,500 tons
3. First quarter	1941	2,700 tons
4. Second quarter	1941	7,200 tons
5. Third quarter	1941	8,800 tons
6. Fourth quarter	1941	4,300 tons
7. First quarter	1942	3,500 tons
8. Second quarter	1942	12,300 tons
9. Third quarter	1942	15,600 tons
10. Fourth quarter	1942	5,600 tons
11. First quarter	1943	17,400 tons
12. Second quarter	1943	36,700 tons
13. Third quarter	1943	40,000 tons
14. Fourth quarter	1943	41,900 tons

Early in 1942 Air Marshal Sir Arthur T. Harris became Chief of the Bomber Command of the RAF.

He advocated "saturation" raids, concentrated in time and space, by large forces of bombers directed at a single target as more effective than dispersed attacks. He also believed that the larger the attacking force of planes the safer and quicker the mission.

The RAF began a program of destroying key German industrial and communications centers.

British Liberators, Lancasters, and Halifaxes were now able to drop 2-ton "blockbusters."

One of the early concentrated raids in 1942 occurred on March 3, 4, when British bombers dropped 460 tons of bombs in two hours on the Renault plant at Billancourt near Paris. This was twice the tonnage of bombs dropped by the Luftwaffe on Coventry.

British raids reached the 1,000-plane level on May 30-31, 1942, when RAF planes dropped 3,000 tons of bombs on Cologne in ninety minutes.

Principal German cities attacked on a saturation scale in 1942 were Cologne, Lübeck, Rostock, Emden, Wilhelmshaven, Mainz, Karlsruhe, and Düsseldorf.

Other German cities attacked on a somewhat smaller scale in 1942 were Bremen, Hamburg, Osnabrück, Kassel, Munich, Duisburg, Oberhausen, Essen, Kiel, Saarbrücken, Münster, Flensburg, and Stuttgart.

The U.S. Eighth Air Force was established in Britain in 1942 under Major General Carl Spaatz (later under Major General Ira C. Eaker).

The equipment (Fortresses and Liberators) and doctrine of the United States Air Force called for daylight precision bombing.

Many months were to pass before the Eighth Air Force could put many planes over Europe.

The first American bomb was dropped on Germany on January 27, 1943.

It was not until March 1943 that the Eighth Air Force was able to put 100 heavy bombers in the air in a single day.

The capacity of American heavy bombers to fight their way to their targets and back against the highly skilled German fighter pilots had to be proved.

If American day bombing could be coordinated with steady British night bombing a double strain would be imposed on German defenses.

The monthly schedule of bombings for May 1943 by the RAF included:

1. Dortmund	May 4	1,500 tons
2. Duisburg	May 12	1,500 tons
3. Bochum	May 13	1,500 tons
4. Dortmund	May 23	2,000 tons
5. Düsseldorf	May 25	2,000 tons
6. Essen	May 27	1,000 tons
7. Wuppertal	May 28	1,500 tons

By July 27, 1943, the RAF bombing capacity had increased to a point where 50 tons of bombs a minute were dropped on Hamburg.

This should be contrasted with the 17 tons a minute dropped on Cologne on May 30-31, 1942.

September 22, 1943, in the raid on Hanover the rate of bombs dropped per minute rose to 70 tons.

The attack on Berlin November 22, 1943, saw bombs falling at the rate of 77 tons per minute.

Principal cities to receive saturation attacks by the RAF in 1943 included:

1. Berlin total of 25,000 tons.
2. Hamburg total of 11,000 tons.
3. Essen total of 9,000 tons.
4. Mannheim total of 7,000 tons.
5. Cologne total of 8,000 tons.
6. Ludwigshaven total of 7,000 tons.
7. Duisburg total of 6,000 tons.
8. Düsseldorf total of 5,000 tons.
9. Nürnberg total of 5,000 tons.
10. The Ruhr area total of 25,000 tons.

A total of 136,000 tons of bombs were dropped on Germany by the RAF in 1943.

A total of 134,000 tons of bombs were dropped by the RAF in the Mediterranean theater of war in 1943.

The RAF Fighter Command in Britain flew a total of 460,000 sorties in 1943.

During 1943 the U.S. Eighth Air Force Bomber Command conducted 110 missions and dropped 48,666 tons of bombs on enemy targets.

A total of 1,307 United States bombers was lost in 1943 as against 3,357 enemy aircraft destroyed, 843 probably destroyed, and 1,596 damaged.

American heavy bombers proved themselves to be capable of fighting their way to targets against German fighter opposition.

Notable developments in bombing techniques brought out during the year included bombing through clouds and haze, the use of "pathfinder planes" for outlining targets, and the introduction of long-range fighter protection to cover raids inside Germany.

Examples of selective bombing operations by the American Air Forces include raids on Vegesack (submarines), Emden (submarines), Regensberg (airplanes), Huls (rubber), Schweinfurt (ball bearings), Ploesti, Rumania (oil), Marienburg (planes), Anklam (planes).

The year 1943 ended with both the RAF and American Air Forces concentrating their attacks on German fighter plane production.

By the end of 1943 the United States Air Force in Britain almost equalled the RAF in size.

The bomb tonnage dropped by the Eighth Air Force Bomber Command in December 1943 was equal to 30% of the total tonnage dropped in the 16 previous months.

A total of 250,000 acres in Britain were in use as air bases.

The over all pattern of the air war against Germany was to destroy her war industries, cripple her communications, and wear down her air force in preparation for the Allied invasion of the Continent.

By the beginning of 1944, the ability of American heavy bombers to fight their way to a target and return, in daylight, without too costly losses had been proved.

By 1944, also, Allied air bases had been established in Italy and the United States Fifteenth Air Force, operating from there, was able to coordinate its attacks with those of the United States Eighth Air Force based in Britain.

The pattern of air warfare against Germany which was developed during 1943 was carried on without interruption. Airfields, railway installations and industrial plants continued to be the primary objectives of every bombing raid.

The perfection of daylight bombing by United States Air Forces together with nightly operations of the RAF made possible an almost routine around-the-clock bombing of Germany and occupied countries.

During the first quarter of 1944, RAF fighters and bombers went out in large formations almost every night. Their

targets included Northern France, the Pas de Calais area and Germany. Frequently as many as 1,000 planes took part in a single raid.

Heaviest raids, in point of bombs dropped, during this period were:

January 2	Berlin	1,120 tons
January 3	Berlin	1,100 tons
January 14	Brunswick	2,240 tons
January 21	Berlin	2,575 tons
January 27	Berlin	1,680 tons
January 30	Berlin	1,680 tons
February 15	Berlin	2,500 tons
February 20	Leipzig	2,300 tons
February 21	Stuttgart	2,000 tons
February 25	Augsburg	1,800 tons
March 15	Stuttgart, Munich Amiens	3,360 tons
March 22	Frankfort	3,360 tons
March 24	Berlin	1,000 tons

The raid on February 15, when 1,000 bombers dropped 2,500 tons on Berlin in 30 minutes, was the heaviest raid the RAF had made up to that time. However, that record was broken on March 15 when RAF bombers dropped a total of 3,360 tons of bombs on Stuttgart, Munich and Amiens in a single raid.

During March, 1944, the British Air Ministry announced that in the first phase of the Battle of Berlin—the period November 18, 1943 to February 15, 1944—the RAF had destroyed or damaged 326 enemy factories, 103 of which were rated as of prime importance to the war effort.

By the beginning of January, 1944, it was estimated that three-fourths of Berlin had been destroyed.

During the first quarter of 1944 the German Luftwaffe continued to make infrequent attacks on Southeastern England and the city of London. Usually less than 100 planes were employed in these raids and, in comparison with the blitz of 1940-1941, they did little damage.

In the first part of 1944, the AAF, in addition to its usual targets in Coastal France and Western Germany, bombed such German industrial centers as Frankfort, Wilhelmshaven, Brunswick, Leipzig, Stuttgart, Regensburg and Schweinfurt. Heavy raids, often employing as many as 2,000 planes, were made almost daily.

In preparation for a future invasion, British and American planes also made concentrated attacks on the strongly fortified French coastline. During one January day, Allied planes made 1,100 sorties over Northern France and daily the French Channel area was attacked by the AAF or the RAF, or both.

During January, 1944, American planes dropped a total of 22,000 tons of bombs on German targets in Europe and destroyed 930 planes.

On February 25, 1944, an aide of Lieutenant General Carl Spaatz, Commander of the United States Strategic Air Force in Europe, stated that recent bombings had cut German aircraft production from an estimated 2,500 planes to 1,230 planes monthly.

The month of March, 1944, was a significant one for the AAF for it marked the first United States bombing of Berlin.

On March 4, 1944, U.S. planes carried out their first raid on the Nazi capital. This was followed by other heavy raids.

March 6, 1944	Berlin	2,000 tons
March 8, 1944	Berlin	1,500 tons
March 15, 1944	Cassino	3,500 tons
March 22, 1944	Berlin	1,400 tons

On March 28, 1944, Lieutenant General James H. Doolittle, Chief of the Eighth Air Force, stated that British-based American planes had destroyed 2,100 Nazi planes in the eight weeks ending March 28 and in the same period had dropped 37,000 tons of bombs on German-occupied territory.

During the first quarter of 1944, RAF and AAF planes made raids on Piraeus, the port of Athens, Greece; on Sofia, Bulgaria; on Rhodes harbor, in the Ægean; on Genoa; and on Nazi airplane plants in Austria.

The Air War in the Pacific

By the beginning of 1944, United States Air Forces in the Pacific were strong enough to launch almost daily air attacks against enemy-held bases.

The AAF had secured air bases in the Solomons and elsewhere which made such attacks possible. A heavy toll of enemy shipping was taken by Navy planes, many of which were carrier-based. The heaviest attacks during this quarter-year were:

January 11, 1944	New Guinea	159 tons
February 2, 1944	New Guinea	107 tons
February 4, 1944	Wewak, New Guinea	104 tons
February 5, 1944	Cape Hoskins, New Britain	167 tons
February 6, 1944	Rabaul, New Britain	124 tons
February 8-9-10, 1944	Marshall Islands	114 tons
February 9, 1944	Wewak, New Guinea	200 tons
February 10, 1944	Kavieng, New Britain	167 tons
February 11, 1944	Rabaul, New Britain	134 tons
February 18, 1944	Rabaul, New Britain	123 tons
February 23, 1944	New Britain, New Guinea and New Ireland	200 tons
February 25, 1944	Rabaul, New Britain	112 tons
February 26, 1944	Rabaul, New Britain	164 tons
March 1, 1944	Rabaul, New Britain	161 tons
March 14, 1944	Wewak, New Guinea	174 tons
March 14, 1944	Bougainville Island	123 tons
March 22, 1944	Hansa Bay, New Guinea	160 tons

One of the most important air attacks in the Pacific during this period was that on Truk, the Japanese naval base.

Several hundred Allied planes took part in the February 16, 1944 raid on Truk in which 23 Japanese ships were sunk and 201 planes were destroyed.

OBSERVATIONS

1. Allied leaders have announced that we will not rely entirely

on bombing operations to bring Germany to surrender, but that we are going to use that weapon for all it is worth.

2. British and American air raids on Germany have not yet been able to prevent the enemy from supplying his 300 divisions on widely separated battlefronts.
3. Saturation bombing in the Ruhr and elsewhere has produced grave housing problems in the Reich.
4. Public morale as reflected in letters and newspapers show the cumulative effect of bombing raids, but the result so far has been "apathy to the war," not revolt.
5. The American bombing strength in Europe has not yet reached its peak.
6. The Report of the Commanding General, U.S. Army Air Forces to the Secretary of War, January 4, 1942, stated that the primary concern of the air offensive against Germany "is to make the coming invasion of Germany as economical as possible by drastically reducing the war potential of the Third Reich and its satellites."
7. The year 1944 brought the United Nations the advantage of being able to carry out two-way bombing of Germany conducted from bases in Britain and Italy.

Appendix I

Chronology—The Immediate Background of the War

YEAR	NAZI GERMANY	FASCIST ITALY	JAPAN
1921	Washington treaties.
1922	Mussolini Dictator.	
1927	Pact of Paris.....	Pact of Paris.....	Tanaka Memorial.
1931	Pact of Paris
1933	Hitler Chancellor (January).	Mukden Incident (September)
1934	Attempt on Austria (July).	Manchukuo.
1935	Rearmament (March-June).	Abyssinian War (October).	Jehol (January-May).
1936	Rhineland (March)....	Rome-Berlin Axis (Oct.)	Anti-Comintern Pact (Nov.)
	Anti-Comintern Pact (Oct.-Nov.)		
	Intervention in Spain..	Intervention in Spain.	
	Four-Year Plan.	
1937	Anti-Comintern Pact (Nov.)	Peking (July).
		Shanghai (Aug.)
1938	Anschluss (March)....	Nanking (Dec.)
	Munich (September).	Action according
	Sudetenland (Oct.)	to
1939	Czechoslovakia (March).	Albania (April).	plan.

Appendix II

Chronology—1931-1941

YEAR	MAJOR AXIS ACTIONS	UNITED STATES REACTIONS
1931	"Mukden Incident" (Sept. 18).	
1932	"Stimson Doctrine" (refusal to recognize territorial

Chronology 1931-1941 (Continued)

YEAR	MAJOR AXIS ACTIONS	UNITED STATES REACTIONS
1933		changes resulting from aggression) (Jan. 9). "Good Neighbor Policy" given its name and further developed (Mar. 4).
1934	Germany tries to seize Austria (July 25). Japan denounces Washington Treaty of 1921 (free to build warships without limit after 1936) (Dec. 29.)	Act for Philippine Independence (Mar. 24).
1935	Germany rearms (Mar. 10). Italy attacks Ethiopia (Oct. 3).	Neutrality Act (Export of munitions banned) (Aug. 31).
1936	Germany occupies Rhineland (March 7). Germany's 4-Year Plan (October 19). Rome-Berlin Axis (Oct. 24). Anti-Comintern Pact between Germany and Japan (Nov. 25). Axis Intervention in Spain (October).	Neutrality Act (No purchase of belligerents' bonds) (Feb. 29). President Roosevelt's "Quarantine Speech" (Oct. 5).
1937	Japan seizes Shanghai (August-November). Italy signs Anti-Comintern Pact (Nov. 6).	Neutrality Act (cash and carry) (May 1).
1938	Panay sunk (Dec. 12). Germany seizes Austria (Mar. 12).	President seeks to avoid crisis by appeal to Hitler and Mussolini (Sept. 26-27).
1938	Germany provokes Sudeten Crisis (March). Munich Conference (Sept. 29).	
1939	Japanese invades Kwantung (Oct. 21). Japan seizes Hainan Island (Feb. 10). Japan seizes Spratley Island (Mar. 31). Germany seizes Czechoslovakia (Mar. 14).	President Roosevelt attends Lima Conference of American Republics (Dec. 10). President Roosevelt appeal to Hitler and Mussolini to promise non-aggression (Apr. 14). Trade Treaty (1911) de

Chronology 1931-1941 (Continued)

YEAR	MAJOR AXIS ACTIONS	UNITED STATES REACTIONS
1940	Italy seizes Albania (Apr. 7). Italo-German military alliance (May 22). German-Soviet Pact (Aug. 21). Germany attacks Poland (Sept. 1).	nounced (U. S. free to cut off exports to Japan after Jan. 1, 1940) (July 2). President Roosevelt appeals to Victor Emmanuel and Hitler. (Aug. 23-24, 1939). Declaration of Panama (American Republics) for neutrality zone (Oct. 2). Neutrality Act (combat zones, etc.) (Nov. 4). Congressional resolution against transfer of territory in Western Hemisphere from one European power to another (June 17). Two ocean navy (July 19). National Guard mustered into Federal service (Aug. 27).
	Germany attacks Denmark and Norway (Apr. 9). Germany attacks Low Countries and France (May 10). Battle of Britain (August 8).	Exchange of destroyers for bases (Sept. 2).
	First Axis Libyan offensive (Graziani) (Sept. 13-16). Pact of Berlin-Axis Alliance (Sept. 27).	Selective Service Act (Sept. 16).
	Italy attacks Greece (Oct. 28).	O. P. M. (Knudsen) (Dec. 20).
	First British Libyan Offensive (Wavell) (Dec. 9, 1940-Feb. 8, 1941).	"Lend-Lease" Act (Arsenal of Democracy) (Mar. 11).
	Second Axis Libyan Offensive (Rommel) (Mar. 24-Apr. 18).	U. S. Forces sent to Greenland (Apr. 9) and to Iceland (July 7).
	Germany attacks Greece and Yugoslavia (Apr. 6).	Unlimited National Emergency (May 27).
	Soviet-Japanese Non-Aggression Pact (Apr. 13).	U. S. Army Forces of the Far East organized under MacArthur (July 26).
	Peak sinkings in Battle of the Atlantic (June).	Extension of service period of National Guard and selectees (Aug. 14).
	Germany attacks U. S. S. R. (June 22).	Atlantic Charter (Aug. 14).
1941	Japan occupies Indo-China by arrangement with Vichy (July).	Shoot on sight order to Navy (Sept. 11).
	Second British Libyan Offensive (Auchinleck) (Nov. 18, 1941-Jan. 7, 1942).	Cash and carry, combat zone features of neutrality acts (1937 and 1939) revoked (Nov. 17).
	Red Army reoccupies Rostov (Nov. 29).	

Appendix III

Declarations or Acts Constituting Recognition of a State of War by Adversaries of the Axis Powers

COUNTRIES	GERMANY	ITALY	JAPAN
United States.....	Dec. 11, 1941	Dec. 11, 1941	Dec. 8, 1941
United Kingdom of Grt. Britain and N. Ireland	Sept. 3, 1939	June 11, 1940	Dec. 7, 1941
Union of Soviet Socialist Republics	June 22, 1941	June 22, 1941
China.....	Dec. 9, 1941	Dec. 9, 1941	Dec. 9, 1941
Australia.....	Sept. 3, 1939	June 11, 1940	Dec. 8, 1941
Belgium.....	May 10, 1940	Dec. 20, 1941	Dec. 20, 1941
Bolivia.....	Apr. 7, 1943	Apr. 7, 1943	Apr. 7, 1943
Brazil.....	Aug. 22, 1942	Aug. 22, 1942
Canada.....	Sept. 10, 1939	June 10, 1940	Dec. 7, 1941
Costa Rica.....	Dec. 11, 1941	Dec. 11, 1941	Dec. 8, 1941
Cuba.....	Dec. 11, 1941	Dec. 11, 1941	Dec. 9, 1941
Czechoslovakia.....	Dec. 16, 1941	Dec. 16, 1941	Dec. 16, 1941
Dominican Republic.....	Dec. 11, 1941	Dec. 11, 1941	Dec. 8, 1941
El Salvador.....	Dec. 12, 1941	Dec. 12, 1941	Dec. 8, 1941
Ethiopia.....	Dec. 1, 1942	Dec. 1, 1942	Dec. 1, 1942
Greece.....	Apr. 6, 1941	Oct. 28, 1940
Guatemala.....	Dec. 11, 1941	Dec. 11, 1941	Dec. 8, 1941
Haiti.....	Dec. 12, 1941	Dec. 12, 1942	Dec. 8, 1941
Honduras.....	Dec. 12, 1941	Dec. 12, 1941	Dec. 8, 1941
India.....	Sept. 3, 1941
Iraq.....	Jan. 17, 1942	Jan. 17, 1942	Jan. 17, 1942
Luxembourg.....	May 10, 1941
Mexico.....	May 22, 1942	May 22, 1942	May 22, 1942
Netherlands.....	May 10, 1940	Dec. 11, 1941	Dec. 8, 1941
New Zealand.....	Sept. 3, 1939	June 11, 1940	Dec. 8, 1941
Nicaragua.....	Dec. 11, 1941	Dec. 11, 1941	Dec. 8, 1941
Norway.....	Apr. 9, 1940
Panama.....	Dec. 12, 1941	Dec. 12, 1941	Dec. 10, 1941
Philippines, Common- wealth of (See U.S.)			
Poland.....	Sept. 1, 1939	Dec. 11, 1941
South Africa, Union of..	Sept. 6, 1939	June 11, 1940	Dec. 8, 1941
Yugoslavia.....	Apr. 6, 1941	Apr. 6, 1941	Dec. 7, 1941

Appendix IV

Historical Documents of the United Nations

The Bill of Rights

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MARCH 15, 1791

IN 1777 the Continental Congress framed the Articles of Confederation to provide for the government of the thirteen colonies which were therein described as The United States of America. These Articles went into effect in 1781, but proved insufficient to care for the needs of the new nation in a variety of respects, e.g. taxation, the regulation of commerce, western lands, Indian affairs, paper money, and military matters.

To remedy these defects a Constitutional Convention met in Philadelphia in May 1787. Its labors resulted in the document which begins "We, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America."

The proposed Constitution declared (Article I, Section 9) that the privilege of the writ of *habeas corpus* should not be suspended save in cases of rebellion or invasion, and provided (Article III, Section 2) for jury trial of all crimes, save in cases of impeachment. But in the eyes of many it failed to provide sufficient guarantees for individual rights and liberties. These people still held, as in 1776, that "tyranny, like Hell, is not easily conquered," and demanded protection against it. Accordingly, during the sessions of ratifying conventions in some states, promises were made that if the new constitution were ratified amendments would at once be added to provide such guarantees.

In keeping with these promises and in response to popular demand the first ten amendments were passed by the new Congress of the United States in its first session in 1789. They were

ratified by a sufficient number of states and became effective December 15, 1791.

They were patterned after a like guarantee of rights and liberties established in Great Britain in 1689. This latter document, from which the wording of some amendments was derived, was entitled "The Bill of Rights." The same title has naturally been applied to Amendments I-X to the Constitution of the United States, which read as follows:

ARTICLE I

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

ARTICLE II

A well regulated militia, being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear arms, shall not be infringed.

ARTICLE III

No soldier shall, in time of peace be quartered in any house, without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE IV

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

ARTICLE V

No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or other infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process

of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.

ARTICLE VI

In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right of a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which districts shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense.

ARTICLE VII

In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury, shall be otherwise re-examined in any court of the United States, than according to the rules of common law.

ARTICLE VIII

Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ARTICLE IX

The enumeration in the Constitution, of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X

The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

"The Four Freedoms"

ANNUAL MESSAGE OF THE PRESIDENT TO CONGRESS JANUARY 6, 1941

... In the future days, which we seek to make secure, we look forward to a world founded upon four essential human freedoms.

The first is freedom of speech and expression—everywhere in the world.

The second is freedom of every person to worship God in his own way—everywhere in the world.

The third is freedom from want—which, translated in world terms, means economic understandings which will secure to every nation a healthy peacetime life for its inhabitants—everywhere in the world.

The fourth is freedom from fear—which, translated into world terms, means a world-wide reduction of armaments to such a point and in such a thorough fashion that no nation will be in a position to commit an act of physical aggression against any neighbor—anywhere in the world.

That is no vision of a distant millennium. It is a definite basis for a kind of world attainable in our own time and generation. That kind of world is the very antithesis of the so-called new order of tyranny which the dictators seek to create with the crash of a bomb.

To that new order we oppose the greater conception—the moral order. A good society is able to face schemes of world domination and foreign revolutions alike without fear.

Since the beginning of our American history we have been engaged in change—in a perpetual peaceful revolution—a revolution which goes on steadily, quietly adjusting itself to changing conditions—without the concentration camp or the quick-lime in the ditch. The world order which we seek is the cooperation of free countries, working together in a friendly, civilized society.

This nation has placed its destiny in the hands and heads and hearts of its millions of free men and women; and its faith in freedom under the guidance of God. Freedom means the supremacy of human rights everywhere. Our support goes to those who struggle to gain those rights or keep them. Our strength is in our unity of purpose.

To that high concept there can be no end save victory.

FRANKLIN D. ROOSEVELT
THE WHITE HOUSE, January 6, 1941.

The Atlantic Charter

AUGUST 14, 1941

Joint declaration of the President of the United States of America and the Prime Minister, Mr. Churchill, representing His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom, being met together, deem it right to make known certain common principles in the national policies of their respective countries on which they base their hopes for a better future for the world.

FIRST, Their countries seek no aggrandizement, territorial or other;

SECOND, They desire to see no territorial changes that do not accord with the freely expressed wishes of the peoples concerned;

THIRD, They respect the right of all peoples to choose the form of government under which they will live; and they wish to see sovereign rights and self-government restored to those who have been forcibly deprived of them;

FOURTH, They will endeavor, with due respect for their existing obligations, to further the enjoyment by all States, great or small, victor or vanquished, of access, on equal terms, to the trade and to the raw materials of the world which are needed for their economic prosperity;

FIFTH, They desire to bring about the fullest collaboration between all nations in the economic field with the object of securing, for all, improved labor standards, economic adjustment and social security;

SIXTH, After the final destruction of the Nazi tyranny, they hope to see established a peace which will afford to all nations the means of dwelling in safety within their own boundaries, and which will afford assurance that all the men in all the lands may live out their lives in freedom from fear and want;

SEVENTH, Such a peace should enable all men to traverse the high seas and oceans without hindrance;

EIGHTH, They believe that all of the nations of the world, for realistic as well as spiritual reasons, must come to the abandonment of the use of force. Since no future peace can be maintained if land, sea or air armaments continue to be employed by nations which threaten, or may threaten, aggression outside of their frontiers, they believe, pending the establishment of a wider and permanent system of general security, that

the disarmament of such nations is essential. They will likewise aid and encourage all other practicable measures which will lighten for peace-loving peoples the crushing burden of armaments.

FRANKLIN D. ROOSEVELT
WINSTON S. CHURCHILL

Resolution

EXPRESSING ADHERENCE TO THE PRINCIPLES OF THE ATLANTIC
CHARTER ADOPTED BY THE INTER-ALLIED MEETING, ST.
JAMES'S PALACE, LONDON, SEPTEMBER 24, 1941.

The Governments of Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Greece, Luxembourg, The Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, Yugoslavia, and the representatives of General de Gaulle, leader of Free Frenchmen,

Having taken note of the declaration recently drawn up by the President of the United States and the Prime Minister, Mr. Winston Churchill, on behalf of His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom,

Now make known their adherence to the common principles of policy set forth in that declaration and their intention to cooperate to the best of their ability in giving effect to them.

Joint Resolution Declaring That a State of War Exists Between the Imperial Government of Japan and the Government and the People of the United States and Making Provisions to Prosecute the Same

WHEREAS the Imperial Government of Japan has committed unprovoked acts of war against the Government and the people of the United States of America: Therefore be it

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the state of war between the United States and the Imperial Government of Japan which has ~~thus~~ been thrust upon the United States is hereby formally declared; and the President is hereby authorized and directed to employ the entire naval and military forces of the United States and the resources of the Government to carry on war against the Imperial Government of Japan; and, to bring the conflict to a successful termination, all of the resources of the

country are hereby pledged by the Congress of the United States.
Approved, December 8, 1941, 1610, E.S.T.

Joint Resolution Declaring That a State of War Exists Between the Government of Germany and the Government and the People of the United States and Making Provision to Prosecute the Same

WHEREAS the Government of Germany has formally declared war against the Government and the people of the United States of America: Therefore be it

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the state of war between the United States and the Government of Germany which has thus been thrust upon the United States is hereby formally declared; and the President is hereby authorized and directed to employ the entire naval and military forces of the United States and the resources of the Government to carry on war against the Government of Germany; and, to bring the conflict to a successful termination, all of the resources of the country are hereby pledged by the Congress of the United States.

Approved, December 11, 1941, 1505, E.S.T.

Joint Resolution Declaring That a State of War Exists Between the Government of Italy and the Government and the People of the United States and Making Provision to Prosecute the Same

WHEREAS the Government of Italy has formally declared war against the Government and the people of the United States of America: Therefore be it

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the state of war between the United States and the Government of Italy which has thus been thrust upon the United States is hereby formally declared; and the President is hereby authorized and directed to employ the entire naval and military forces of the United States and of the resources of the Government to carry on war against the Government of Italy; and, to bring the conflict to a successful termination, all of the resources of the country are hereby pledged by the Congress of the United States.

Approved, December 11, 1941, 1506, E.S.T.

Declaration by United Nations

JANUARY 1, 1942

A Joint Declaration by the United States of America, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, China, Australia, Belgium, Canada, Costa Rica, Cuba, Czechoslovakia, Dominican Republic, El Salvador, Greece, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, India, Luxembourg, Netherlands, New Zealand, Nicaragua, Norway, Panama, Poland, South Africa, Yugoslavia.

The Governments signatory hereto,

Having subscribed to a common program of purposes and principles embodied in the Joint Declaration of the President of the United States of America and the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland dated August 14, 1941, known as the Atlantic Charter,

Being convinced that complete victory over their enemies is essential to defend life, liberty, independence and religious freedom, and to preserve human rights and justice in their own lands as well as in other lands, and that they are now engaged in a common struggle against savage and brutal forces seeking to subjugate the world,

DECLARE:

(1) Each Government pledges itself to employ its full resources, military or economic, against those members of the Tripartite Pact and its adherents with which such government is at war.

(2) Each Government pledges itself to cooperate with the Governments signatory hereto and not to make a separate armistice or peace with the enemies.

The foregoing declaration may be adhered to by other nations which are, or which may be, rendering material assistance and contributions in the struggle for victory over Hitlerism.

Done at Washington, January First, 1942

NOTES:

This Declaration was signed by representatives of the governments above listed on January 1, 1942.

Mexico adhered to the Declaration on June 5, 1942, the Philippines on June 10, 1942, Ethiopia's adherence was accepted on October 9, 1942, Iraq declared her adhesion on January 16, Brazil

signified hers on February 6, and Bolivia hers on May 5, 1943.

Earlier, on September 24, 1941, the governments of Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Greece, Luxembourg, The Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Union of Soviet Socialist Republics, Yugoslavia, and the representatives of General de Gaulle, leader of Free Frenchmen, had made known "their adherence to the common principles of policy set forth in that declaration." (See text of their Resolution, p. 162.)

By May 5, 1943, a total of 32 governments exclusive of the Fighting French had joined.

Treaty of Alliance

BETWEEN THE UNION OF SOVIET SOCIALIST REPUBLICS AND THE
UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND NORTHERN
IRELAND, MAY 26, 1942¹

PART I

ARTICLE I. In virtue of the alliance established between the United Kingdom and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics the High Contracting Parties mutually undertake to afford one another military and other assistance and support of all kinds in the war against Germany and all those States which are associated with her in acts of aggression in Europe.

ARTICLE II. The High Contracting Parties undertake not to enter into any negotiations with the Hitlerite Government or any other Government in Germany that does not clearly renounce all aggressive intentions, and not to negotiate or conclude except by mutual consent any armistice or peace treaty with Germany or any other State associated with her in acts of aggression in Europe.

PART II

ARTICLE III. (1) The High Contracting Parties declare their desire to unite with other like-minded States in adopting proposals for common action to preserve peace and resist aggression in the post-war period.

(2) Pending the adoption of such proposals they will after the termination of hostilities take all the measures in their power to render impossible a repetition of aggression and violation of the peace by Germany or any of the States associated with her in acts of aggression in Europe.

ARTICLE IV. Should one of the High Contracting Parties during the post-war period become involved in hostilities with Germany or any of the States mentioned in Article III (2) in consequence of an attack by that State against that Party, the other High Contracting Party will at once give to the Contracting Party so involved in hostilities all the military and other support and assistance in his power.

This article shall remain in force until the High Contracting

¹An "Agreement for Joint Action . . . in the War against Germany" was signed by the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics on July 12, 1941. This agreement contained the substance of Articles I and II of Part I of the treaty which appears here.

Parties, by mutual agreement, shall recognize that it is superseded by the adoption of the proposals contemplated in Article III (1). In default of the adoption of such proposals, it shall remain in force for a period of 20 years, and thereafter until terminated by either High Contracting Party, as provided in Article VIII.

ARTICLE V. The High Contracting Parties, having regard to the interests of the security of each of them, agree to work together in close and friendly collaboration after the reestablishment of peace for the organization of security and economic prosperity in Europe. They will take into account the interests of the United Nations in these objects, and they will act in accordance with the two principles of not seeking territorial aggrandizement for themselves and of noninterference in the internal affairs of other States.

ARTICLE VI. The High Contracting Parties agree to render one another all possible economic assistance after the war.

ARTICLE VII. Each High Contracting Party undertakes not to conclude any alliance and not to take part in any coalition directed against the other High Contracting Party.

ARTICLE VIII. The present Treaty is subject to ratification in the shortest possible time and the instruments of ratification shall be exchanged in Moscow as soon as possible.

It comes into force immediately on the exchange of the instruments of ratification and shall thereupon replace the agreement between the Government of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom, signed at Moscow on the 12th July, 1941.

Part I of the present Treaty shall remain in force until the reestablishment of peace between the High Contracting Parties and Germany and the Powers associated with her in acts of aggression in Europe.

Part II of the present Treaty shall remain in force for a period of 20 years. Thereafter, unless 12 months' notice has been given by either Party to terminate the Treaty at the end of the said period of 20 years, it shall continue in force until 12 months after either High Contracting Party shall have given notice to the other in writing of his intention to terminate it.

House of Representatives Resolution 25

Resolved by the House of Representatives [the Senate concurring], that the Congress hereby expresses itself as favoring the creation of appropriate international machinery with power adequate to establish and to maintain a just and lasting peace, among the nations of the world, and as favoring participation by the U.S. therein through its constitutional process.

Passed by the House of Representatives September 21, 1943.

Three-Power Conference

Moscow, NOVEMBER 2, 1943

Joint Communiqué of Tripartite Conference

The conference of Foreign Secretaries of the United States of America, Mr. Cordell Hull; of the United Kingdom, Mr. Anthony Eden; and of the Soviet Union, Mr. V. M. Molotoff, took place at Moscow from the nineteenth to the thirtieth of October, 1943. There were twelve meetings. In addition to the Foreign Secretaries, the following took part in the conference:

For the United States of America: Mr. W. Averell Harriman, Ambassador of the United States; Maj. Gen. John R. Deane, United States Army; Mr. H. Hackworth, Mr. James C. Dunn and experts.

For the United Kingdom: Sir Archibald Clark Kerr, Ambassador; Mr. William Strang, Lieut. Gen. Sir Hastings Ismay and experts.

For the Soviet Union: Marshall K. E. Voroshiloff, Marshal of the Soviet Union; Mr. A. Y. Vyshinski and Mr. M. Litvinoff, deputy People's Commissars for Foreign Affairs; Mr. V. A. Sergeyeff, Deputy People's Commissar for Foreign Trade; Maj. Gen. A. A. Gryzloff of the General Staff, Mr. G. F. Saksin, senior official for People's Commissariat for Foreign Affairs, and experts.

The agenda included all questions submitted for discussion by the three Governments. Some of the questions called for final decisions, and these were taken. On other questions, after discussion, decisions of principle were taken. These questions were referred for detailed consideration to commissions specially set up for the purpose, or reserved for treatment through diplomatic channels. Other questions again were disposed of by an exchange of views. The Governments of the United States, the United Kingdom and the Soviet Union have been in close cooperation in all matters concerning the common war effort, but this is the first time that the Foreign Secretaries of the three Governments have been able to meet together in conference.

In the first place there were frank and exhaustive discussions of the measures to be taken to shorten the war against Germany and her satellites in Europe. Advantage was taken of the presence of military advisers representing the respective Chiefs of Staff in

order to discuss definite military operations with regard to which decisions had been taken and which are already being prepared in order to create a basis for the closest military cooperation in the future between the three countries.

Second only to the importance of hastening the end of the war was the recognition by the three Governments that it was essential in their own national interests and in the interests of all peace-loving nations to continue the present close collaboration and cooperation in the conduct of the war into the period following the end of hostilities, and that only in this way could peace be maintained and the political, economic and social welfare of their peoples fully promoted.

This conviction is expressed in a declaration in which the Chinese Government joined during the conference and which was signed by the three Foreign Secretaries and the Chinese Ambassador at Moscow on behalf of their Governments. This declaration published today provides for even closer collaboration in the prosecution of the war and in all matters pertaining to the surrender and disarmament of the enemies with which the four countries are, respectively, at war. It set forth the principles upon which the four Governments agree that a broad system of international cooperation and security should be based. Provision is made for the inclusion of all other peace-loving nations, great and small, in this system.

The conference agreed to set up machinery for ensuring the closest cooperation between the three Governments in the examination of European questions arising as the war develops. For this purpose the conference decided to establish in London a European advisory commission to study these questions and to make joint recommendations to the three Governments.

Provision was made for continuing, when necessary, the tripartite consultations of representatives of the three Governments in the respective capitals through the existing diplomatic channels.

The conference also agreed to establish an advisory council for matters relating to Italy, to be composed in the first instance of representatives of their three Governments and of the French Committee of National Liberation. Provision is made for addition to this council of representatives of Greece and Yugoslavia in view of their special interests arising out of aggressions of Fascist

Italy upon their territory during the present war. This council will deal with day-to-day questions other than military preparations and will make recommendations designed to coordinate Allied policy with regard to Italy.

The Three Foreign Secretaries considered it appropriate to reaffirm, by a declaration published today, the attitude of the Allied Governments in favor of the restoration of democracy in Italy.

The three Foreign Secretaries declared it to be the purpose of their Governments to restore the independence of Austria. At the same time they reminded Austria that in the final settlement account will be taken of efforts that Austria may make toward its own liberation. The declaration on Austria is published today.

The Foreign Secretaries issued at the conference a declaration by President Roosevelt, Prime Minister Churchill and Premier Stalin containing a solemn warning that at the time of granting any armistice to any German Government, those German officers and men and members of the Nazi party who have had any connection with atrocities and executions in countries overrun by German forces will be taken back to the countries in which their abominable crimes were committed to be charged and punished according to the laws of those countries.

In an atmosphere of mutual confidence and understanding which characterized all the work of the conference, consideration was also given to other important questions. These included not only questions of a current nature but also questions concerning treatment of Hitlerite Germany and its satellites, economic cooperation and assurance of general peace.

Joint Four-Nation Declaration

The governments of the United States of America, the United Kingdom, the Soviet Union and China:

United in their determination, in accordance with the declaration by the United Nations of Jan. 1, 1942, and subsequent declarations, to continue hostilities against those Axis powers with which they respectively are at war until such powers have laid down their arms on the basis of unconditional surrender;

Conscious of their responsibility to secure the liberation of themselves and the peoples allied with them from the menace of aggression;

Recognizing the necessity of ensuring a rapid and orderly transition from war to peace and of establishing and maintaining international peace and security with the least diversion of the world's human and economic resources for armaments;

Jointly declare:

1—That their united action, pledged for the prosecution of the war against their respective enemies, will be continued for the organization and maintenance of peace and security.

2—That those of them at war with a common enemy will act together in all matters relating to the surrender and disarmament of that enemy.

3—That they will take all measures deemed by them to be necessary to provide against any violation of the terms imposed upon the enemy.

4—That they recognize the necessity of establishing at the earliest practicable date a general international organization, based on the principle of the sovereign equality of all peace-loving States, and open to membership by all such States, large and small, for the maintenance of international peace and security.

5—That for the purpose of maintaining international peace and security pending the re-establishment of law and order and the inauguration of a system of general security, they will consult with one another and as occasion requires with other members of the United Nations with a view to joint action on behalf of the community of nations.

6—That after the termination of hostilities they will not employ their military forces within the territories of other States except for the purposes envisaged in this declaration and after joint consultation.

7—That they will confer and cooperate with one another and with other members of the United Nations to bring about a practicable general agreement with respect to the regulation of armaments in the post-war period.

Declaration Regarding Italy

The Foreign Secretaries of the United States, the United Kingdom and the Soviet Union have established that their three governments are in complete agreement that Allied policy toward Italy must be based upon the fundamental principle that fascism and all its evil influence and configuration shall be completely destroyed and that the Italian people shall be given every oppor-

tunity to establish governmental and other institutions based upon democratic principles.

The Foreign Secretaries of the United States and United Kingdom declare that the action of their governments from the inception of the invasion of Italian territory, in so far as paramount military requirements have permitted, has been based upon this policy.

In furtherance of this policy in the future the Foreign Secretaries of the three governments are agreed that the following measures are important and should be put into effect:

1—It is essential that the Italian Government should be made more democratic by inclusion of representatives of those sections of the Italian people who have always opposed fascism.

2—Freedom of speech, of religious worship, of political belief, of press and of public meeting shall be restored in full measure to the Italian people, who shall also be entitled to form anti-Fascist political groups.

3—All institutions and organizations created by the Fascist regime shall be suppressed.

4—All Fascist or pro-Fascist elements shall be removed from the administration and from institutions and organizations of a public character.

5—All political prisoners of the Fascist regime shall be released and accorded full amnesty.

6—Democratic organs of local government shall be created.

7—Fascist chiefs and army generals known or suspected to be war criminals shall be arrested and handed over to justice.

In making this declaration the three Foreign Secretaries recognize that so long as active military operations continue in Italy the time at which it is possible to give full effect to the principles stated above will be determined by the Commander-in-Chief on the basis of instructions received through the combined chiefs of staff.

The three governments, parties to this declaration, will, at the request of any one of them, consult on this matter. It is further understood that nothing in this resolution is to operate against the right of the Italian people ultimately to choose their own form of government.

Declaration on Austria

The governments of the United Kingdom, the Soviet Union

and the United States of America are agreed that Austria, the first free country to fall a victim to Hitlerite aggression, shall be liberated from German domination.

They regard the annexation imposed on Austria by Germany on March 15, 1938, as null and void. They consider themselves as in no way bound by any changes effected in Austria since that date. They declare that they wish to see re-established a free and independent Austria and thereby to open the way for the Austrian people themselves, as well as those neighboring States which will be faced with similar problems, to find that political and economic security which is the only basis for lasting peace.

Austria is reminded, however, that she has a responsibility, which she cannot evade, for participation in the war at the side of Hitlerite Germany, and that in the final settlement account will inevitably be taken of her own contribution to her liberation.

Statement on Atrocities

Signed by President Roosevelt, Prime Minister Churchill
and Premier Stalin

The United Kingdom, the United States and the Soviet Union have received from many quarters evidence of atrocities, massacres and cold-blooded mass executions which are being perpetrated by Hitlerite forces in many of the countries they have overrun and from which they are now being steadily expelled. The brutalities of Nazi domination are no new thing, and all peoples or territories in their grip have suffered from the worst form of government by terror. What is new is that many of these territories are now being redeemed by the advancing armies of the liberating powers and that in their desperation the recoiling Hitlerites and Huns are redoubling their ruthless cruelties. This is now evidenced with particular clearness by monstrous crimes on the territory of the Soviet Union which is being liberated from Hitlerites and on French and Italian territory.

Accordingly, the aforesaid three Allied powers, speaking in the interests of the thirty-two United Nations, hereby solemnly declare and give full warning of their declaration as follows:

At any time of granting of any armistice to any government which may be set up in Germany, those German officers and men and members of the Nazi party who have been responsible for or have taken a consenting part in the above atrocities, massacres and executions will be sent back to the countries in which their

abominable deeds were done in order that they may be judged and punished according to the laws of these liberated countries and of the free governments which will be erected therein. Lists will be compiled in all possible detail from all these countries, having regard especially to invaded parts of the Soviet Union, to Poland and Czechoslovakia, to Yugoslavia and Greece, including Crete and other islands; to Norway, Denmark, The Netherlands, Belgium, Luxembourg, France and Italy.

Thus, Germans who take part in wholesale shooting of Polish officers or in the execution of French, Dutch, Belgian or Norwegian hostages or of Cretan peasants, or who have shared in slaughters inflicted on the people of Poland or in territories of the Soviet Union which are now being swept clear of the enemy, will know they will be brought back to the scene of their crimes and judged on the spot by the peoples whom they have outraged. Let those who have hitherto not imbued their hands with innocent blood beware lest they join the ranks of the guilty, for most assuredly the three Allied powers will pursue them to the uttermost ends of the earth and will deliver them to their accusers in order that justice may be done.

The above declaration is without prejudice to the case of German criminals whose offenses have no particular geographical localization and who will be punished by joint decision of the governments of the Allies.

Declaratory of War and Peace Aims of the United States

On November 5, 1943, the Senate of the United States passed by a vote of 85 to 5 Senate Resolution 192 setting forth the war and peace aims of the United States. The Resolution was introduced by the Senator from Texas, the Honorable Thomas C. Connally, Chairman of the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations. Its text, in full, follows.

- Resolved, That the war against all our enemies be waged until complete victory is achieved.

That the United States cooperate with its comrades-in-arms in securing a just and honorable peace.

That the United States, acting through its constitutional processes, join with free and sovereign nations in the establishment

and maintenance of international authority with power to prevent aggression and to preserve the peace of the world.

That the Senate recognize the necessity of there being established at the earliest practicable date a general international organization, based on the principle of the sovereign equality of all peace-loving states, and open to membership by all such states, large and small, for the maintenance of international peace and security.

That, pursuant to the Constitution of the United States, any treaty made to effect the purpose of this resolution, on behalf of the Government of the United States with any other nation or any association of nations, shall be made only by and with the advice and consent of the Senate of the United States, provided two-thirds of the Senators present concur.

Three-Power Statement

TEHERAN, IRAN, DECEMBER 1, 1943

A Declaration of the Three Powers

We, the President of the United States of America, the Prime Minister of Great Britain, and the Premier of the Soviet Union, have met in these four days past in this the capital of our ally, Teheran, and have shaped and confirmed our common policy.

We express our determination that our nations shall work together in the war and in the peace that will follow.

As to the war, our military staffs have joined in our round-table discussions and we have concerted our plans for destruction of the German forces. We have reached complete agreement as to the scope and timing of operations which will be undertaken from the east, west and south. The common understanding which we have here reached guarantees that victory will be ours.

And as to the peace, we are sure that our concord will make it an enduring peace. We recognize fully the supreme responsibility resting upon us and all the nations to make a peace which will command good will from the overwhelming masses of the peoples of the world and banish the scourge and terror of war for many generations.

With our diplomatic advisers we have surveyed the problems of the future. We shall seek the cooperation and active participation of all nations, large and small, whose peoples in heart and

in mind are dedicated, as are our own peoples, to the elimination of tyranny and slavery, oppression and intolerance. We will welcome them as they may choose to come into the world family of democratic nations.

No power on earth can prevent our destroying the German armies by land, their U-boats by sea, and their war plants from the air. Our attacks will be relentless and increasing.

Emerging from these friendly conferences we look with confidence to the day when all the peoples of the world may live free lives untouched by tyranny and according to their varying desires and their own consciences.

We came here with hope and determination. We leave here friends in fact, in spirit, and in purpose.

Signed at Teheran, Dec. 1, 1943.

ROOSEVELT, STALIN, CHURCHILL

Statement on Iran

TEHERAN, IRAN, DECEMBER 1, 1943

The President of the United States of America, the Premier of the U. S. S. R., and the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom, having consulted with each other and with the Prime Minister of Iran, desire to declare the mutual agreement of their three Governments regarding relations with Iran.

The Governments of the United States of America, the U. S. S. R., and the United Kingdom recognize the assistance which Iran has given in the prosecution of the war against the common enemy, particularly by facilitating the transportation of supplies from overseas to the Soviet Union. The three Governments realize that the war has caused special economic difficulties for Iran and they agree that they will continue to make available to the Iran Government such economic assistance as may be possible, having regard to the heavy demands made upon them by their world-wide military operations and to the world-wide shortage of transport, raw materials and supplies for civilian consumption.

With respect to the post-war period, the Governments of the United States of America, the U. S. S. R. and the United Kingdom are in accord with the Government of Iran that any economic problem confronting Iran at the close of hostilities should receive

full consideration along with those of other members of the United Nations by conferences or international agencies, held or created, to deal with international economic matters.

The Governments of the United States of America, the U. S. S. R. and the United Kingdom are at one with the Government of Iran in their desire for the maintenance of the independence, sovereignty and territorial integrity of Iran. They count upon the participation of Iran, together with all other peace-loving nations, in the establishment of international peace, security and prosperity after the war, in accordance with the principles of the Atlantic Charter, to which all four Governments have continued to subscribe.

Conference of President Roosevelt, Prime Minister Churchill, and President Inonu of Turkey at Cairo

The following communiqué was issued December 7, 1943, in Cairo:

Mr. Roosevelt, President of the United States; M. Ismet Inonu, President of the Turkish Republic; and Winston Churchill, Prime Minister of the United Kingdom, met in Cairo on December 4, 5, and 6, 1943. Anthony Eden, His Britannic Majesty's principal Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs; Numan Menemencoglu, Minister of Foreign Affairs for Turkey; and Harry Hopkins took part in their deliberations. Participation in this conference of the head of the Turkish state in response to a cordial invitation addressed to him by the United States, the British and the Soviet Governments bears striking testimony to the strength of the alliance which unites Great Britain and Turkey and to the firm friendship existing between the Turkish people and the United States of America and the Soviet Union.

President Roosevelt and Inonu and Prime Minister Churchill reviewed the general political situation and examined at length the policy to be followed, taking into account the joint and several interests of the three countries. A study of all the problems in a spirit of understanding and loyalty showed that the closest unity existed between the United States of America, Turkey and Great Britain in their attitude to the world situation. The conversations

in Cairo consequently have been most useful and most fruitful for the future of the relations between the four countries concerned. The identity of interests and of views of the great American and British democracies with those of the Soviet Union, as also the traditional relations of friendship existing between these three powers and Turkey, have been reaffirmed throughout the proceedings of the Cairo conference.

Seventeen Points on Foreign Policy

On March 21, 1944 the Secretary of State, Mr. Cordell Hull, outlined the following seventeen points which had been embodied in statements on the foreign policy of the United States made by President Roosevelt and himself during the past two years.

Our Fundamental National Interests

In determining our foreign policy we must first see clearly what our true national interests are.

At the present time, the paramount aim of our foreign policy is to defeat our enemies as quickly as possible.

Beyond final victory, our fundamental national interests are the assuring of our national security and the fostering of the economic and social well-being of our people.

International Cooperation

Cooperation between nations in the spirit of good neighbors, founded on the principles of liberty, equality, justice, morality, and law, is the most effective method of safeguarding and promoting the political, the economic, the social, and the cultural well-being of our nation and of all nations.

International Organization Backed by Force

Some international agency must be created which can—by force, if necessary—keep the peace among nations in the future.

A system of organized international cooperation for the maintenance of peace must be based upon the willingness of the co-operating nations to use force, if necessary, to keep the peace. There must be certainty that adequate and appropriate means are available and will be used for this purpose.

Political Differences

Political differences which present a threat to the peace of the world should be submitted to agencies which would use the remedies of discussion, negotiation, conciliation, and good offices.

International Court of Justice

Disputes of a legal character which present a threat to the peace of the world should be adjudicated by an international court of justice whose decisions would be based upon application of principles of law.

Reduction of Arms

International cooperative action must include eventual adjustment of national armaments in such a manner that the rule of law cannot be successfully challenged and that the burden of armaments may be reduced to a minimum.

Moscow Four Nation Declaration

Through this declaration, the Soviet Union, Great Britain, the United States, and China have laid the foundation for co-operative effort in the post-war world toward enabling all peace-loving nations, large and small, to live in peace and security, to preserve the liberties and rights of civilized existence, and to enjoy expanded opportunities and facilities for economic, social and spiritual progress.

Spheres of Influence and Alliances

As the provisions of the four-nation declaration are carried into effect, there will no longer be need for spheres of influence, for alliances, for balance of power, or any other of the special arrangements through which, in the unhappy past, the nations strove to safeguard their security or to promote their interests.

Surveillance Over Aggressor Nations

In the process of re-establishing international order, the United Nations must exercise surveillance over aggressor nations until such time as the latter demonstrate their willingness and ability to live at peace with other nations. How long such surveillance

will need to continue must depend upon the rapidity with which the people of Germany, Japan, Italy, and their satellites give convincing proof that they have repudiated and abandoned the monstrous philosophy of superior race and conquest by force and have embraced loyally the basic principles of peaceful processes.

International Trade Barriers

Excessive trade barriers of the many different kinds must be reduced, and practices which impose injuries on others and divert trade from its natural economic course must be avoided.

International Finance

Equally plain is the need for making national currencies once more freely exchangeable for each other at stable rates of exchange; for a system of financial relations so devised that materials can be produced and ways may be found of moving them where there are markets created by human need; for machinery through which capital may—for the development of the world's resources and for the stabilization of economic activity—move on equitable terms from financially stronger to financially weaker countries.

Atlantic Charter: Reciprocal Obligations

The pledge of the Atlantic Charter is of a system which will give every nation, large or small, a greater assurance of stable peace, greater opportunity for the realization of its aspirations to freedom, and greater facilities for material advancement. But that pledge implies an obligation for each nation to demonstrate its capacity for stable and progressive government, to fulfill scrupulously its established duties to other nations, to settle its international differences and disputes by none but peaceful methods, and to make its full contribution to the maintenance of enduring peace.

Sovereign Equality of Nations

Each sovereign nation, large or small, is in law and under law the equal of every other nation.

The principle of sovereign equality of all peace-loving states, irrespective of size and strength, as partners in a future system of

general security will be the foundation stone upon which the future international organization will be constructed.

Form of Government

Each nation should be free to decide for itself the forms and details of its governmental organization—so long as it conducts its affairs in such a way as not to menace the peace and security of other nations.

Non-Intervention

All nations, large and small, which respect the rights of others, are entitled to freedom from outside interference in their internal affairs.

Liberty

There is no surer way for men and for nations to show themselves worthy of liberty than to fight for its preservation, in any way that is open to them, against those who would destroy it for all. Never did a plainer duty to fight against its foes devolve upon all peoples who prize liberty and all who aspire to it.

All peoples who, with "a decent respect to the opinions of mankind," have qualified themselves to assume and to discharge the responsibilities of liberty are entitled to its enjoyment.

Dependent Peoples

There rests upon the independent nations a responsibility in relation to dependent peoples who aspire to liberty. It should be the duty of nations having political ties with such peoples, of mandatories, of trustees, or of other agencies, as the case may be, to help the aspiring peoples to develop materially and educationally, to prepare themselves for the duties and responsibilities of self-government, and to attain liberty. An excellent example of what can be achieved is afforded in the record of our relationship with the Philippines.

Appendix V

Historical Documents of the Axis Nations

Anti-Comintern Pact



AGREEMENT BETWEEN THE GERMAN AND JAPANESE GOVERNMENTS RESPECTING THE COMMUNIST INTERNATIONAL, BERLIN, NOVEM- BER 25, 1936

The Government of the German Reich and the Imperial Japanese Government, recognizing that the aim of the Communist International, known as the Comintern, is to disintegrate and subdue existing States by all means at its command; convinced that the toleration of interference by the Communist International in the internal affairs of the nations not only endangers their internal peace and social well-being, but is also a menace to the peace of the world; desirous of cooperating in the defense against Communist subversive activities; have agreed as follows:

ARTICLE I. The High Contracting States agree to inform one another of the activities of the Communist International, to consult with one another on the necessary preventive measures, and to carry these through in close collaboration.

ARTICLE II. The High Contracting Parties will jointly invite third States whose internal peace is threatened by the subversive activities of the Communist International to adopt defensive measures in the spirit of this agreement or to take part in the present agreement.

ARTICLE III. The German as well as the Japanese text of the present agreement is to be deemed the original text. It comes into force on the day of signature and remains in force for a period of five years. Before the expiry of this period the High Contracting Parties will come to an understanding over the further method of their cooperation.

In witness whereof the undersigned, being duly and properly authorized by their respective Governments, have signed this agreement and affixed their seals.

Done in duplicate at Berlin on November 25, 1936—that is, November 25 of the 11th year of Showa Period.

SUPPLEMENTARY PROTOCOL

On the occasion of the signing today of the agreement against the Communist International the undersigned Plenipotentiaries have agreed as follows:

- (a) The competent authorities of the two High Contracting States will work in close collaboration in matters concerning the exchange of information over the activity of the Communist International as well as investigatory and defensive measures against the Communist International.
- (b) The competent authorities of the two High Contracting States will within the framework of the existing laws take severe measures against those who at home or abroad are engaged directly or indirectly in the service of the Communist International or promote its subversive activities.
- (c) In order to facilitate the cooperation of the competent authorities of the two High Contracting Parties provided for in paragraph (a) a permanent committee will be set up. In this committee the further defensive measures necessary for the struggle against the subversive activities of the Communist International will be considered and discussed.

Berlin, November 25, 1936, that is, November 25 of the 11th year of the Showa Period.

NOTES:

The following governments subsequently adhered to the Anti-Comintern Pact of November 26, 1936:

Italy	November 6, 1937
Hungary	February 24, 1939
Manchukuo	February 24, 1939
Spain	March 25, 1939

It was renewed for five years on November 25, 1941, when in addition to the above the following governments, dependent on the Axis, were reported to have signed.

Bulgaria	Rumania
“Croatia”	“Slovakia”
Denmark	The Wang Ching-wei
Finland	regime in China

(See also the Pact of Berlin of September 27, 1940 and its adherents, pp. 183-184.)

Pact of Berlin Between Germany, Italy, and Japan

SIGNED AT BERLIN, SEPTEMBER 27, 1940

The Governments of Germany, Italy, and Japan consider it the prerequisite of a lasting peace that every nation in the world shall receive the space to which it is entitled. They have, therefore, decided to stand by and cooperate with one another in their efforts in Greater East Asia and the regions of Europe respectively. In doing this it is their prime purpose to establish and maintain a new order of things, calculated to promote the mutual prosperity and welfare of the peoples concerned.

It is, furthermore, the desire of the three Governments to extend cooperation to nations in other spheres of the world who are inclined to direct their efforts along lines similar to their own for the purpose of realizing their ultimate object, world peace.

Accordingly, the Governments of Germany, Italy, and Japan have agreed as follows:

ARTICLE 1. Japan recognizes and respects the leadership of Germany and Italy in the establishment of a new order in Europe.

ARTICLE 2. Germany and Italy recognize and respect the leadership of Japan in the establishment of a new order in Greater East Asia.

ARTICLE 3. Germany, Italy, and Japan agree to cooperate in their efforts on aforesaid lines. They further undertake to assist one another with all political, economic, and military means if one of the three Contracting Powers is attacked by a Power at present not involved in the European War or in the Chinese-Japanese conflict.

ARTICLE 4. With the view to implementing the present pact, joint technical commissions, to be appointed by the respective Governments of Germany, Italy, and Japan, will meet without delay.

ARTICLE 5. Germany, Italy, and Japan affirm that the above agreement affects in no way the political status existing at present between each of the three Contracting Parties and Soviet Russia.

ARTICLE 6. The present pact shall become valid immediately

upon signature and shall remain in force ten years from the date on which it becomes effective.

In due time, before the expiration of said term, the High Contracting Parties shall, at the request of any one of them, enter into negotiations for its renewal.

In recognition thereof, the undersigned, duly authorized by their respective governments, have signed this pact and have affixed their seals thereto.

Done in triplicate at Berlin, the 27th day of September, 1940, in the eighteenth year of the Fascist era corresponding to the 27th day of the ninth month of the fifteenth year of Showa.

NOTES:

The following governments subsequently adhered to the Pact of Berlin (Tripartite Pact) of September 27, 1940:

Hungary	November 20, 1940
Rumania	November 23, 1940
“Slovakia”	November 24, 1941
Bulgaria	March 1, 1941

(See also the Anti-Comintern Pact of November 25, 1939, and its adherents, pp. 181-182.)

Agreement

BETWEEN THE GERMAN, ITALIAN, AND JAPANESE GOVERNMENTS,
DECEMBER 11, 1941

(The Japanese attack on the United States and Great Britain on December 7, 1941, followed by the German and Italian declarations of war on the United States, naturally called for a reaffirmation of the principle of mutual support to which the three Axis partners had committed themselves by the Pact of Berlin of September 27, 1940. The fact that Japan was at peace with Soviet Russia required that that country be omitted from the list of countries against which this agreement was directed.)

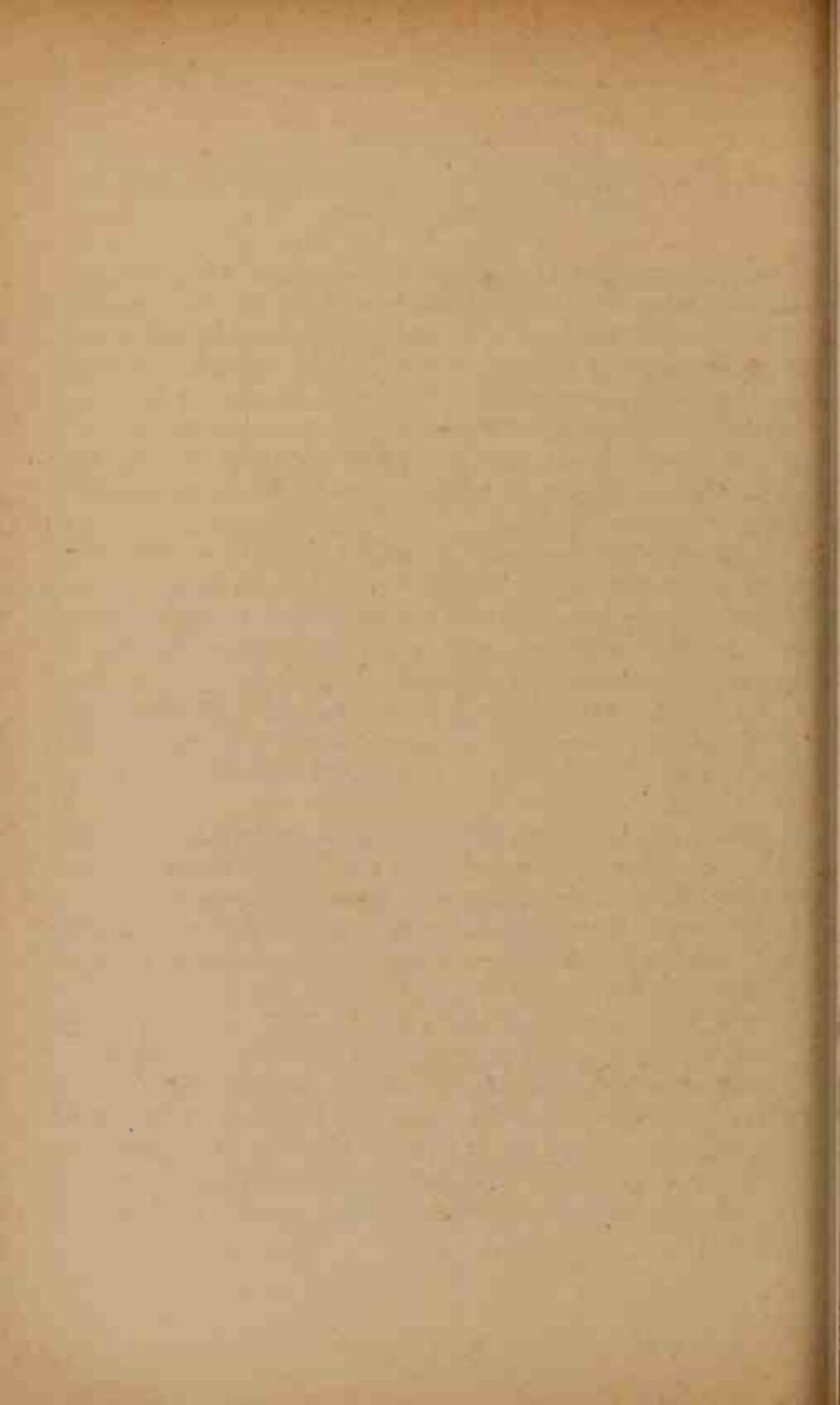
In their unshakable determination not to lay down arms until the common war against the United States of America and Britain has been brought to a successful conclusion, the German Government, the Italian Government, and the Japanese Government have agreed upon the following provisions:

ARTICLE 1. Germany, Italy, and Japan jointly and with every means at their disposal shall proceed with the war forced upon them by the United States of America and Britain until victory is achieved.

ARTICLE 2. Germany, Italy, and Japan undertake not to conclude an armistice or peace with the United States of America or Britain except in complete mutual agreement.

ARTICLE 3. After victory has been achieved Germany, Italy, and Japan will continue in closest cooperation with a view to establishing a new and just order along the lines of the Tripartite Agreement concluded by them on September 27, 1940.

ARTICLE 4. The present agreement will come into force with its signature and will remain valid as long as the Tripartite Pact of September 27, 1940. The High Contracting Parties will in good time before the expiry of this term of validity enter into consultation with each other as to the future development of their cooperation, as provided under Article 3 of the present agreement.

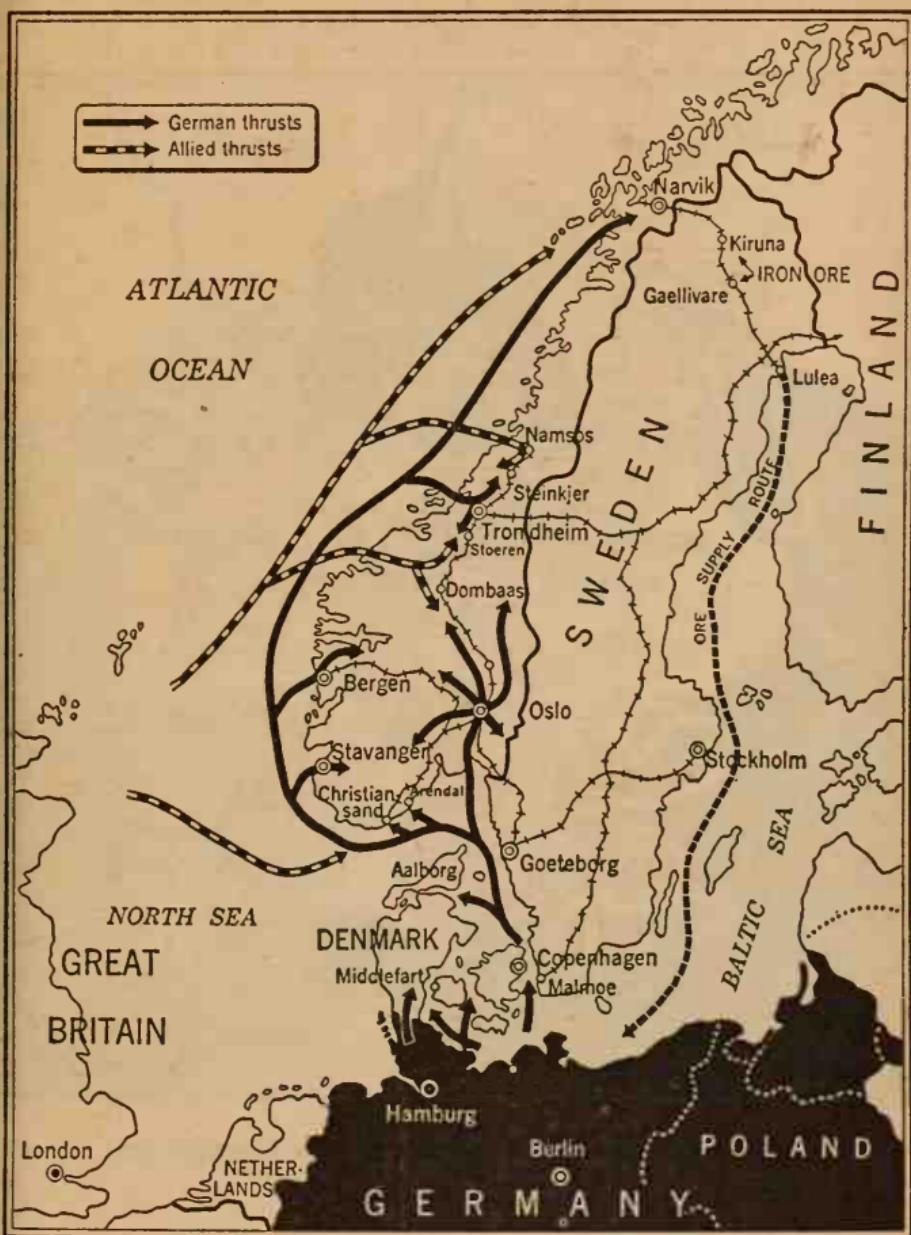




Map 1: Europe After the Treaty of Versailles



Map 2: Hitler's Seizures in Europe



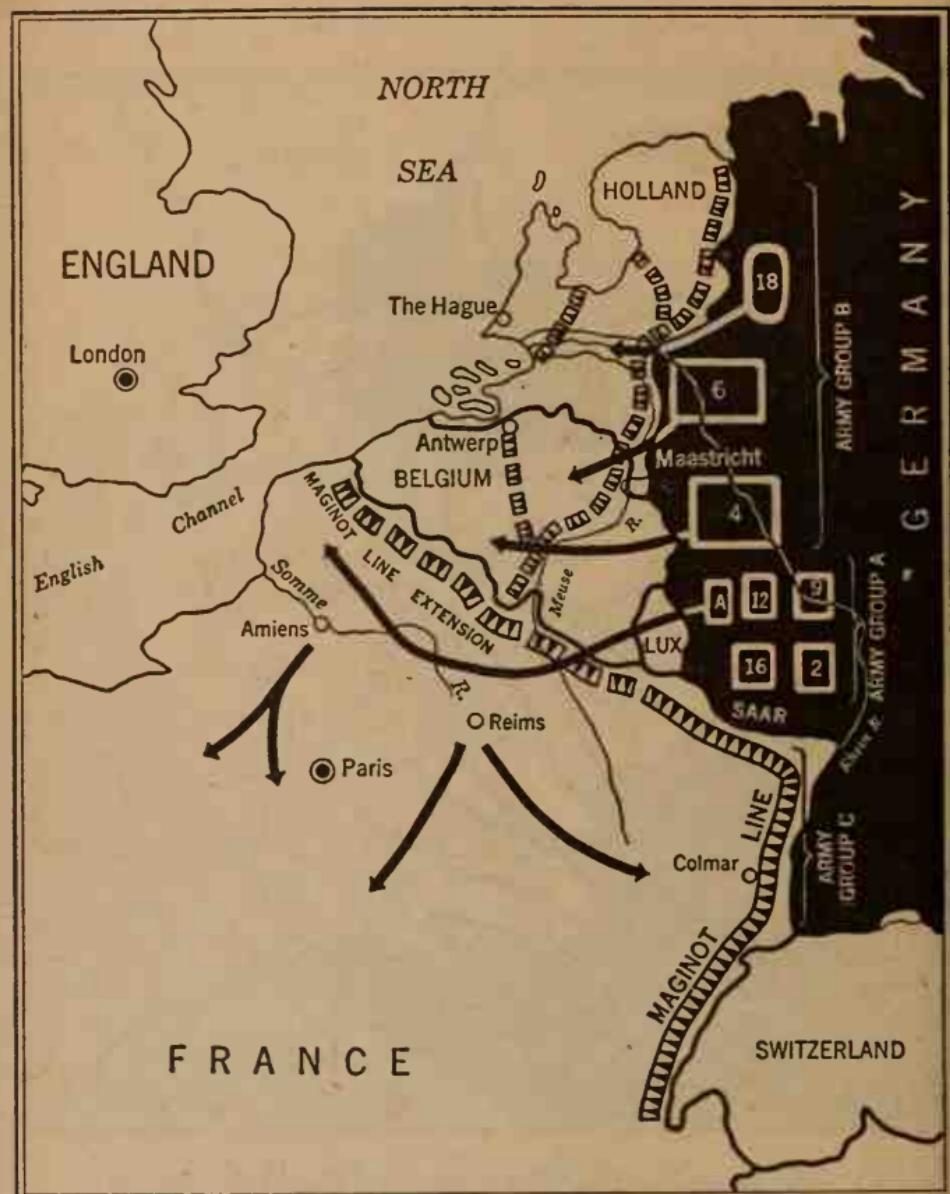
Map 3: The Attack on Norway



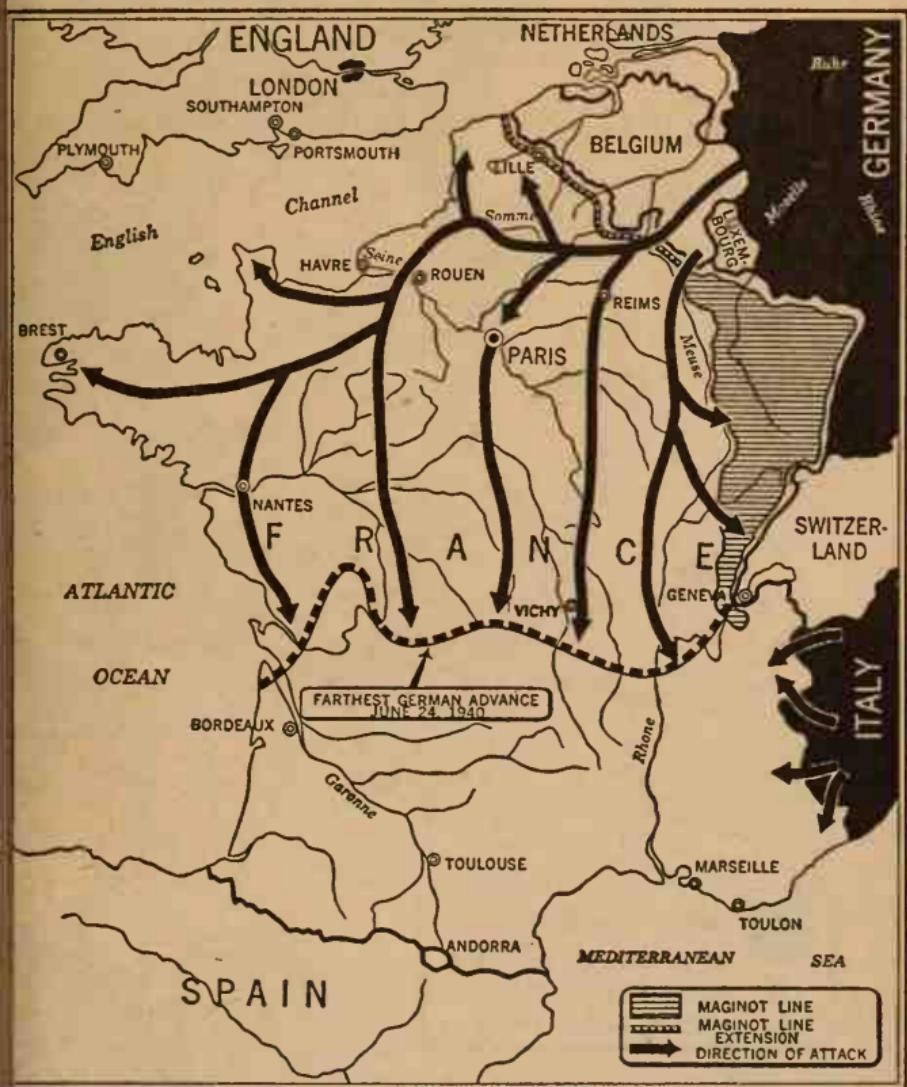
Map 4: The Start of the Polish Campaign



Map 5: The Blitzkrieg in Poland



Map 6: The Opening Attack on Holland, Belgium and France



ATLANTIC

OCEAN

PORTUGAL

Lisbon

Madrid

SPAIN

Br. Gibraltar

SP. MOROCCO

FR. MOROCCO

1140 Miles

Mediterranean

ALGERIA
Fr.

BELGIUM

FRANCE

SWITZERLAND

Venice

Spezia

CORSICA
Fr.

SARDINIA
It.

Terranova

Cagliari

Castellammare

90 Mi.

Tunis

Pantelleri
It.

Mal
Bi

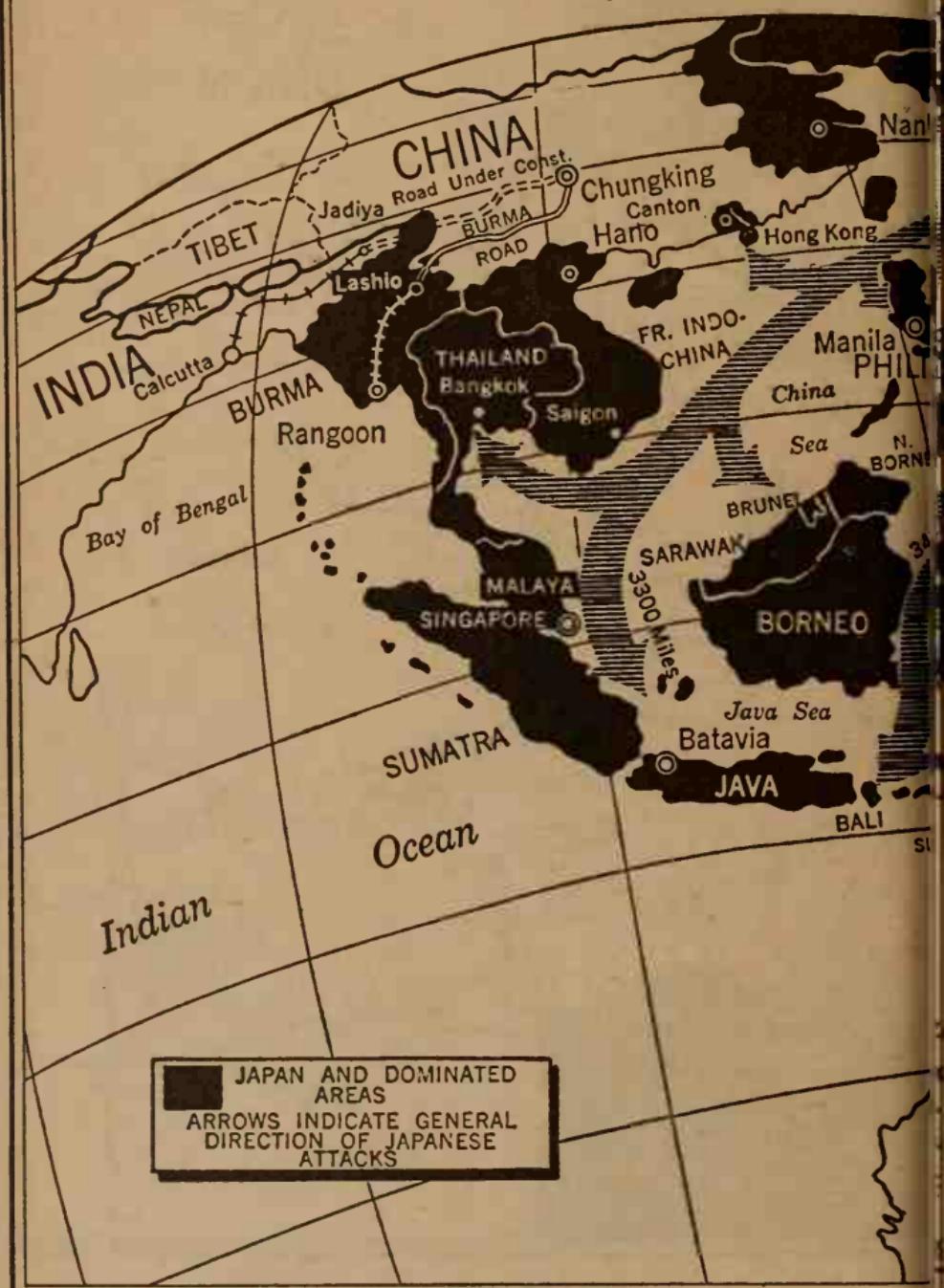
TUNISIA
Fr.

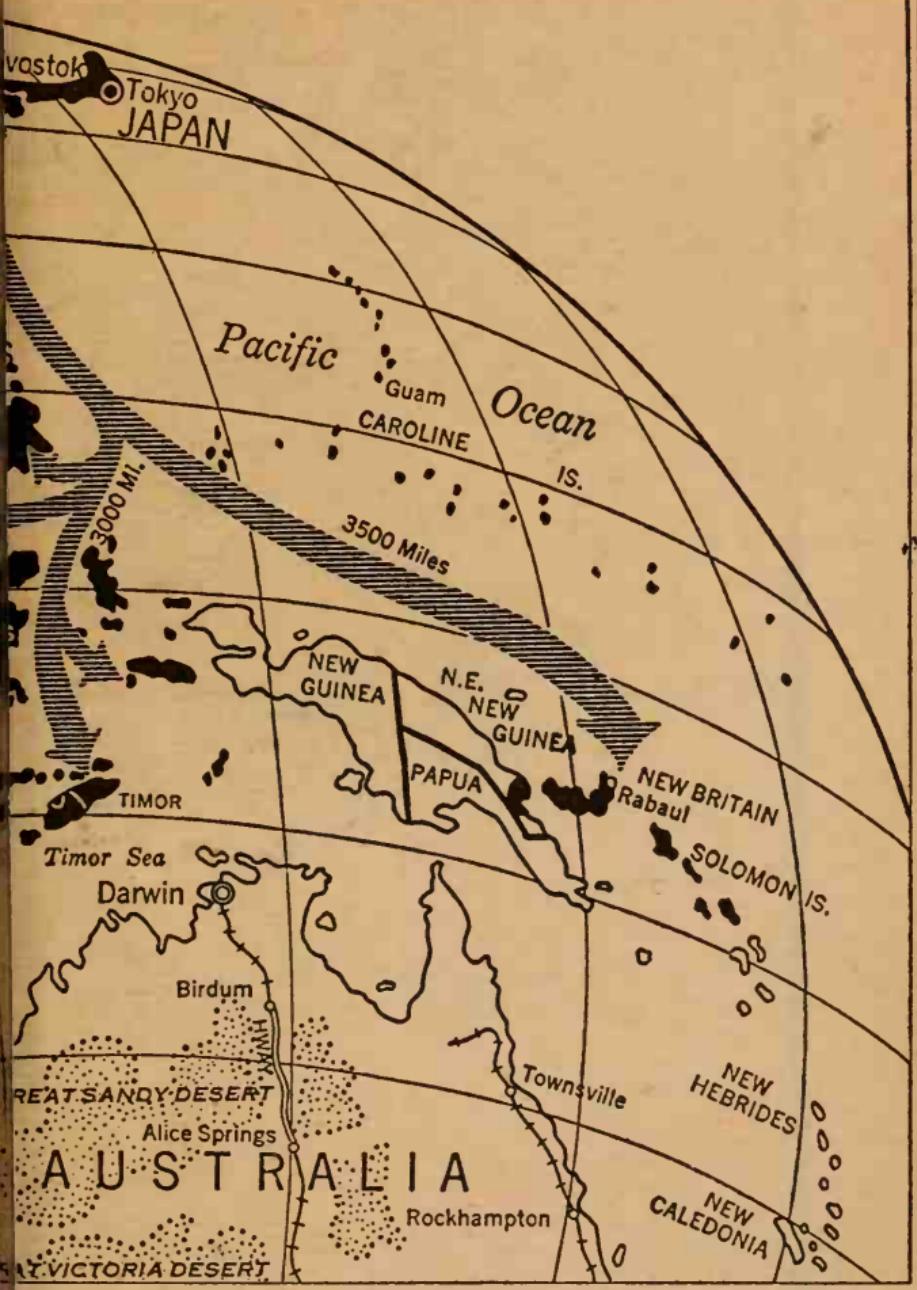


THE AXIS POWERS
OCCUPIED BY GERMANY
■ BRITISH NAVAL BASES
△ ITALIAN NAVAL BASES

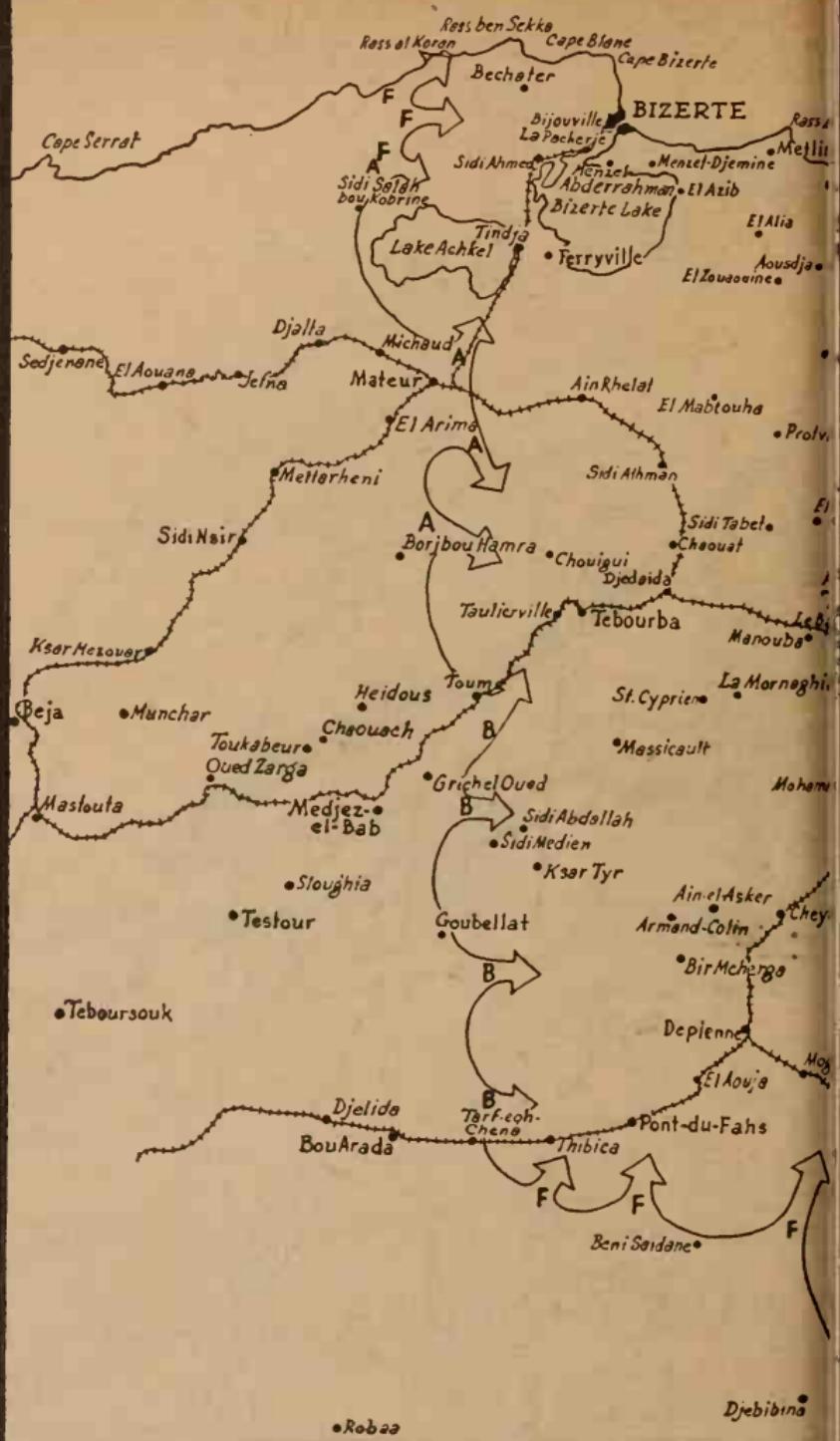


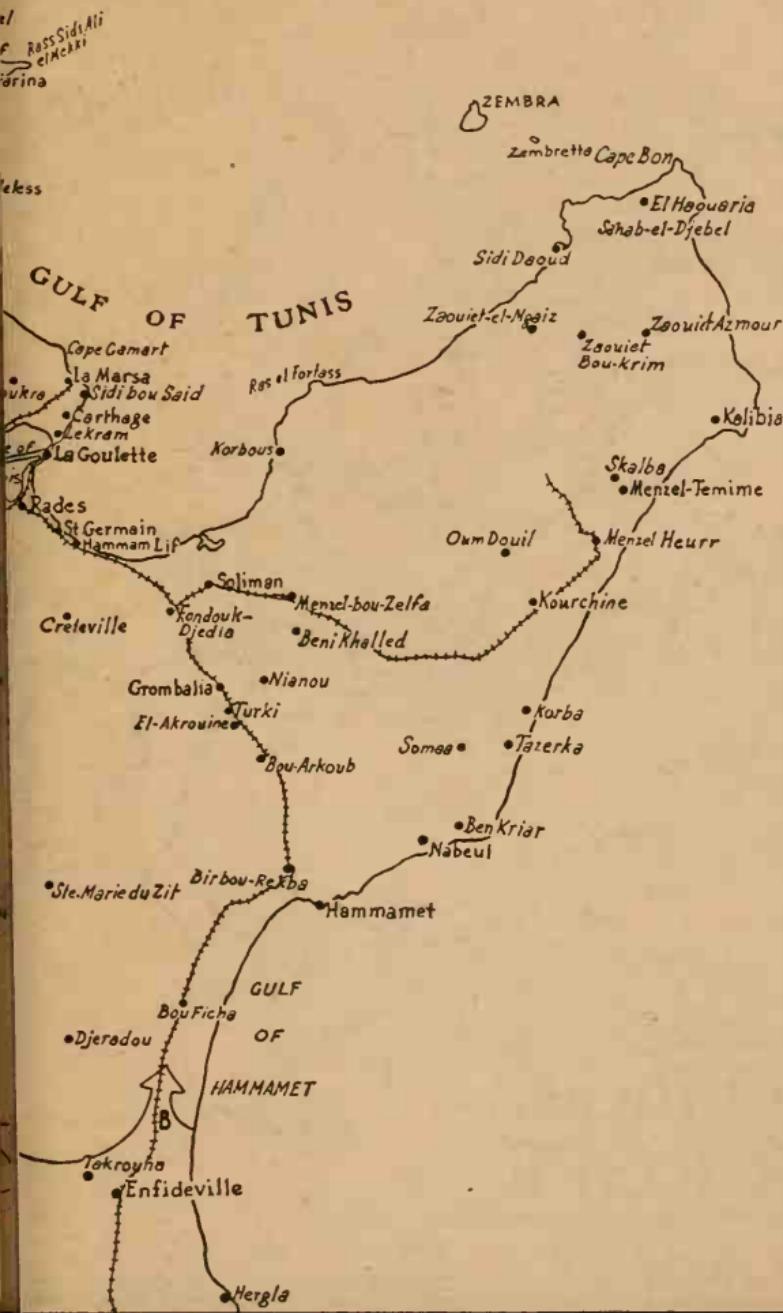
Map 8: The Mediterranean Area





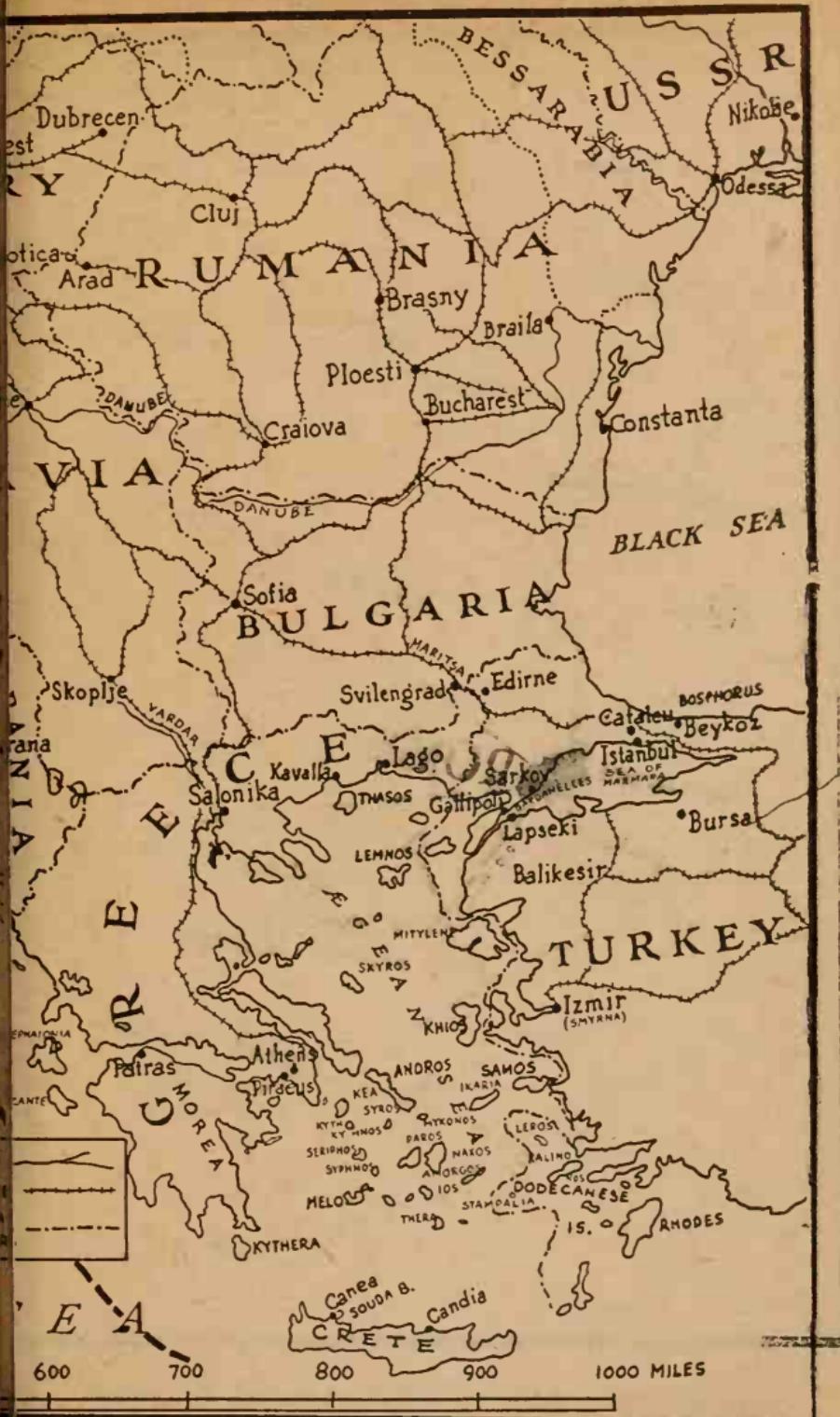
Map 9: The Scope of the Jap Attack that Began
on December 7, 1941





Map 10: The Battle of Tunisia



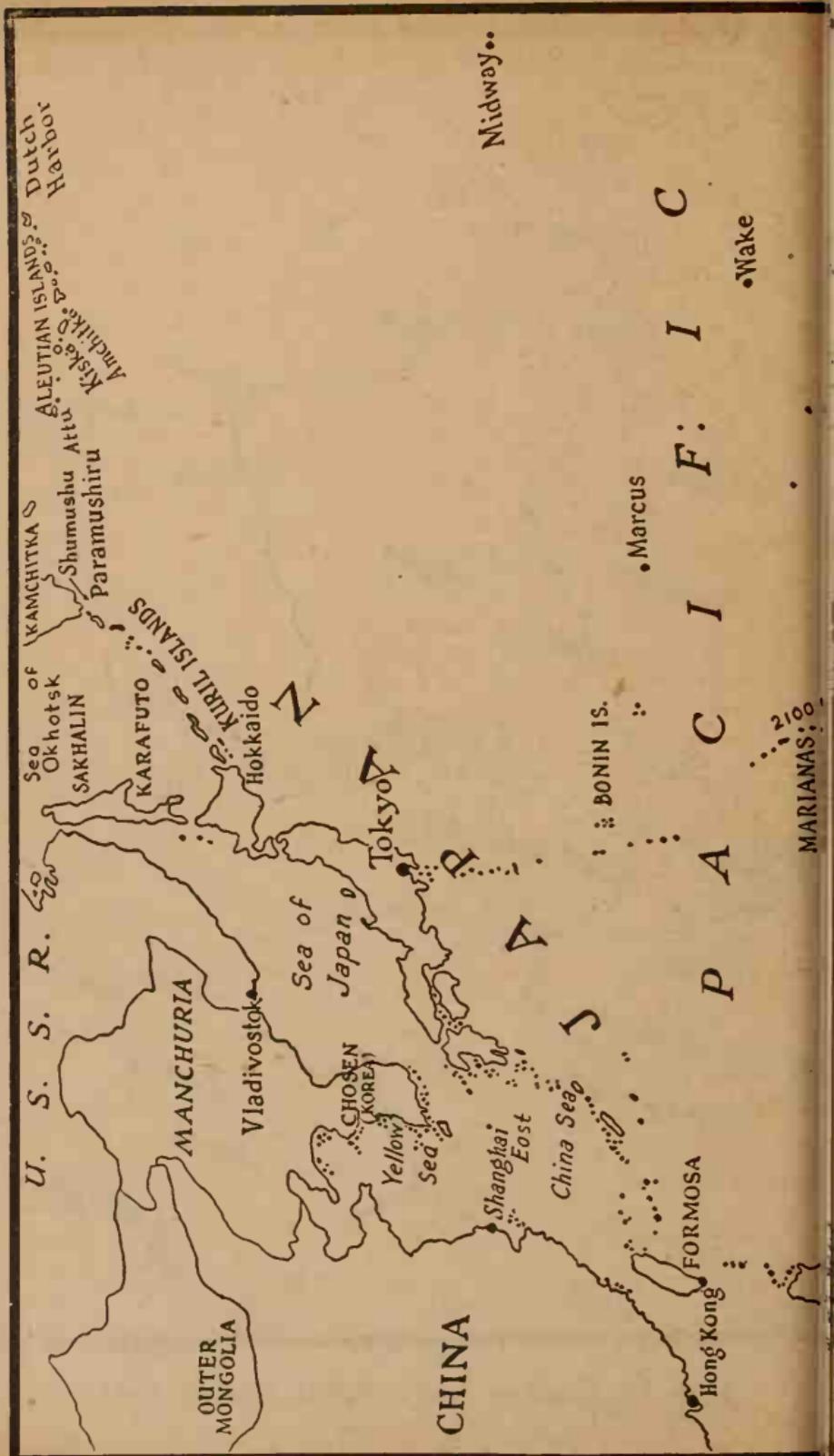


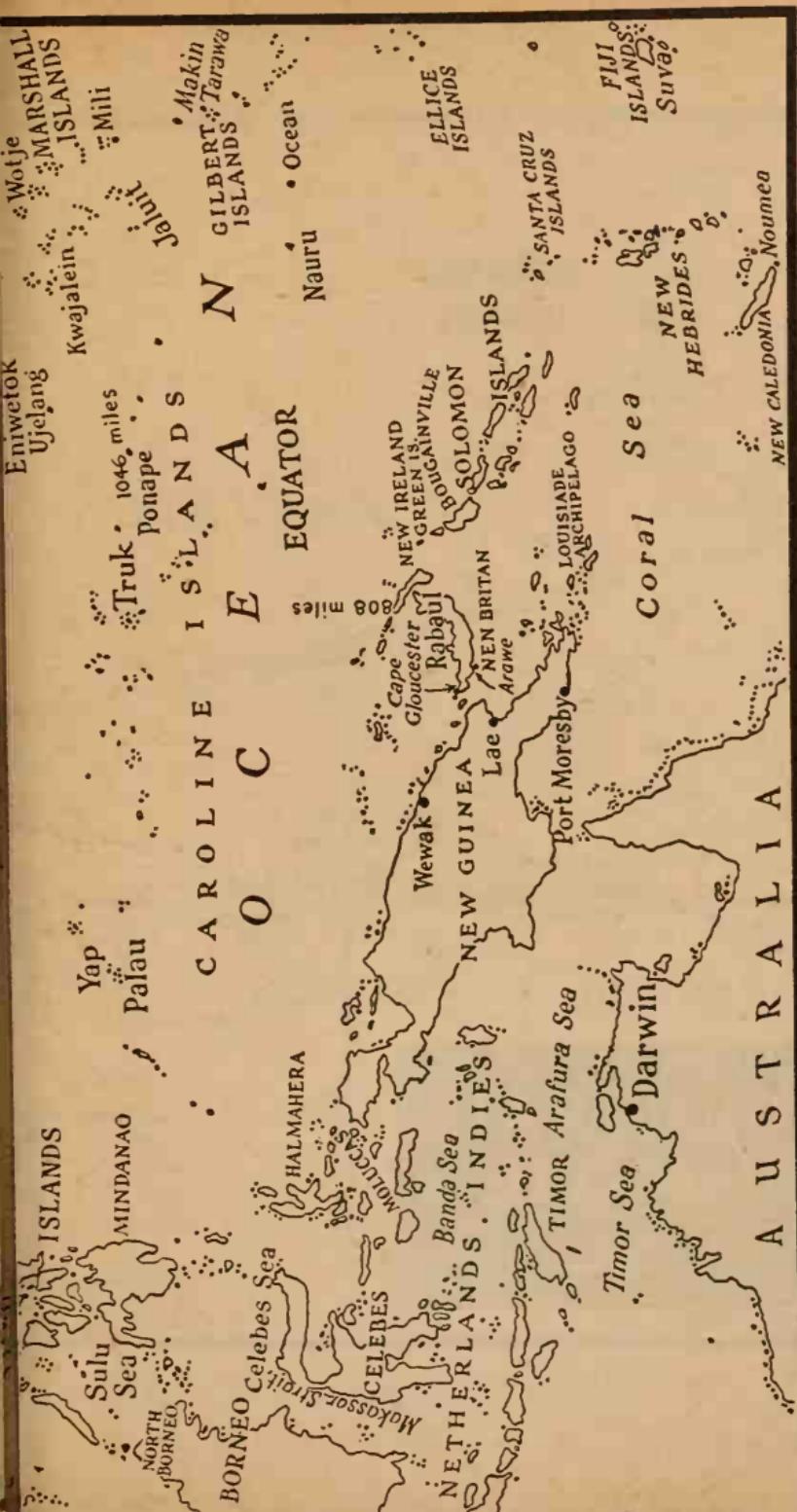
Map 11: Southeast Europe

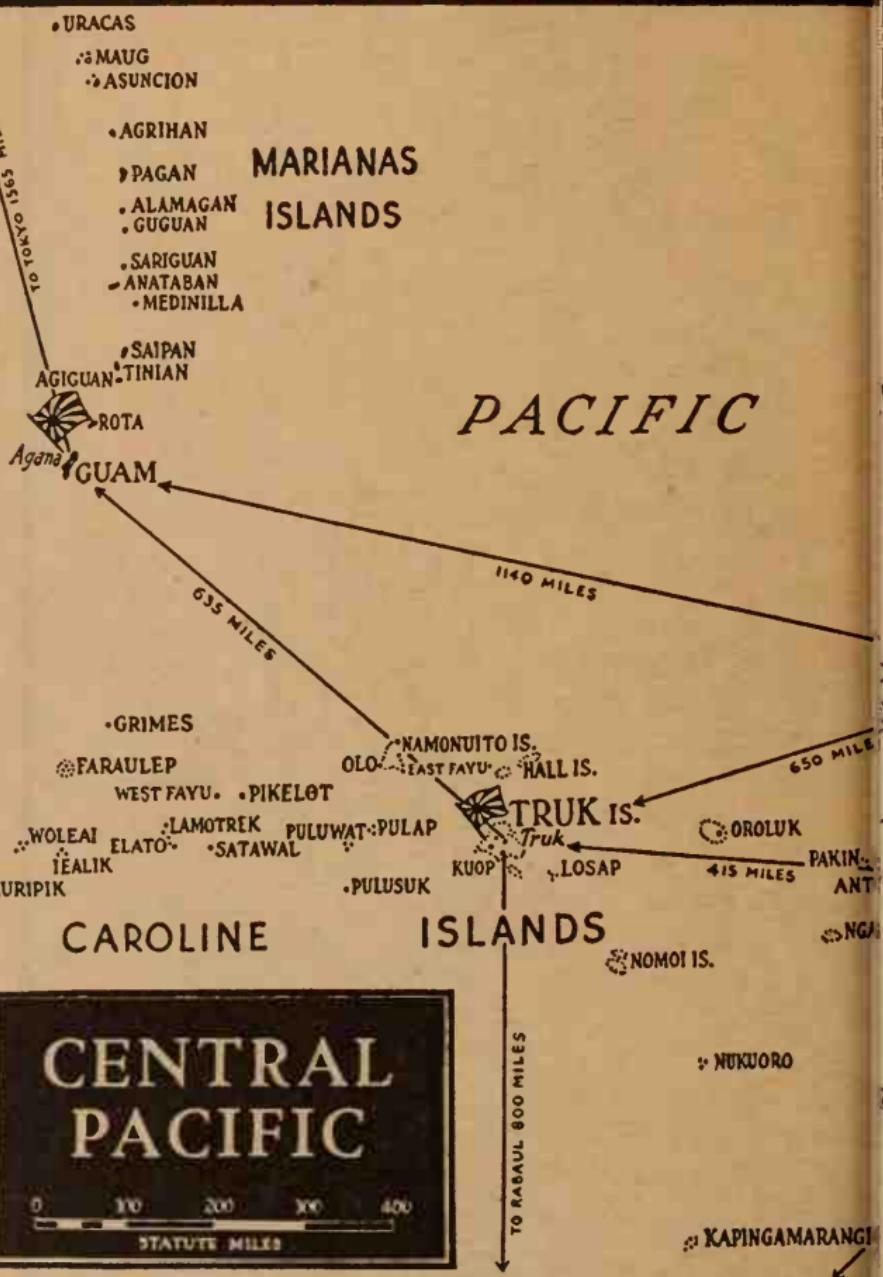


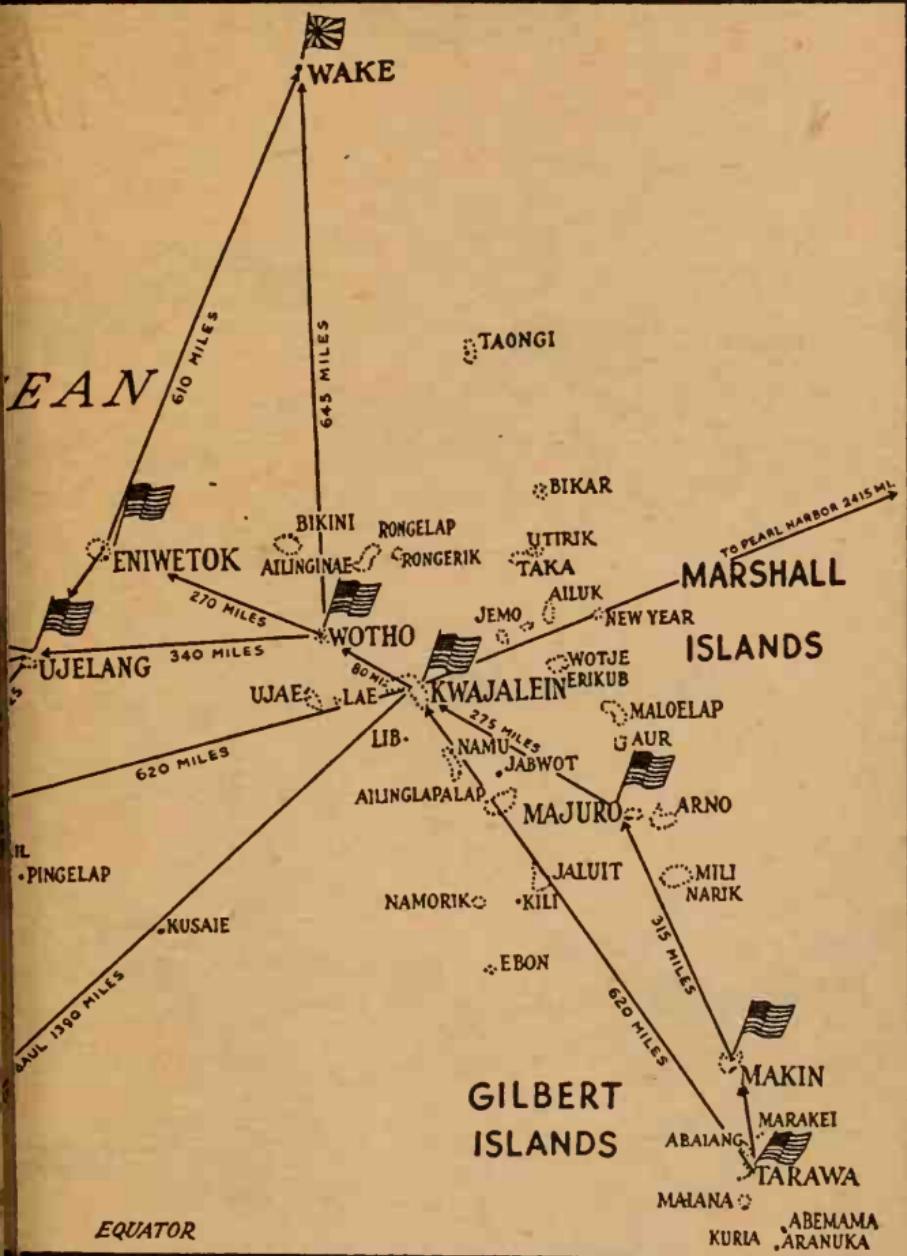


Map 12: Cassino-Anzio Front, Spring 1944



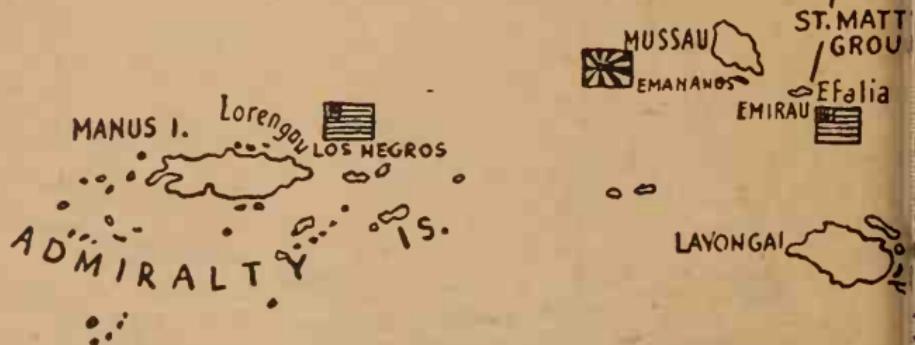






Map 14: The Central Pacific, March 1944

PACIFIC

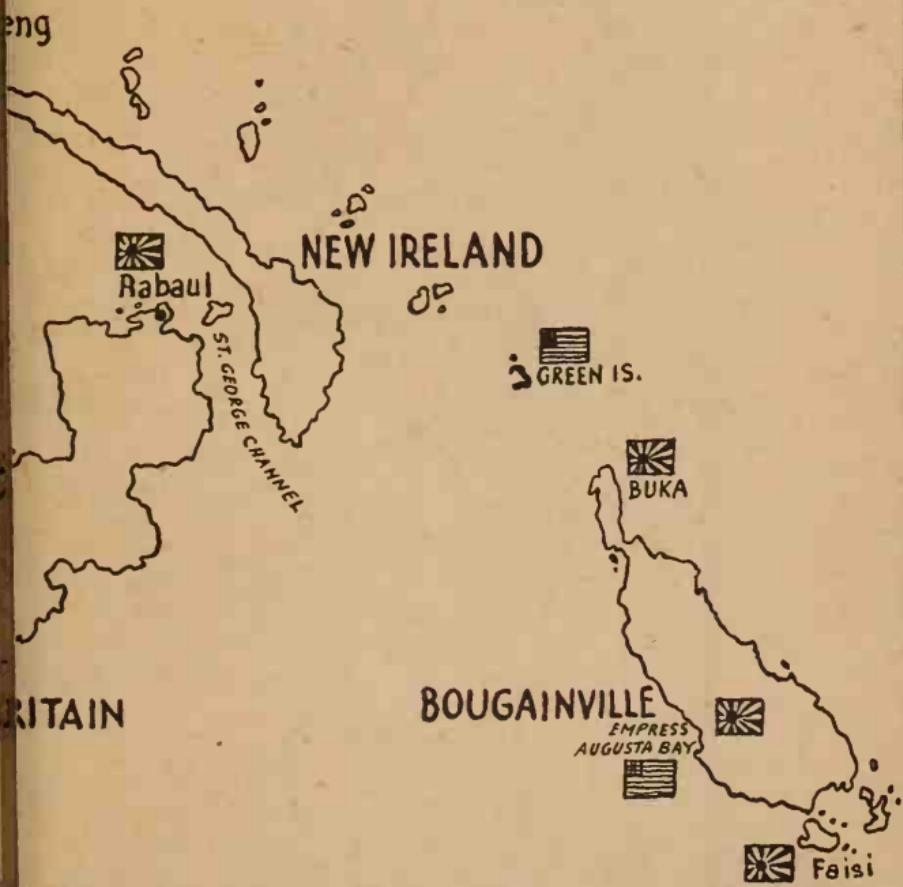


BISMARCK

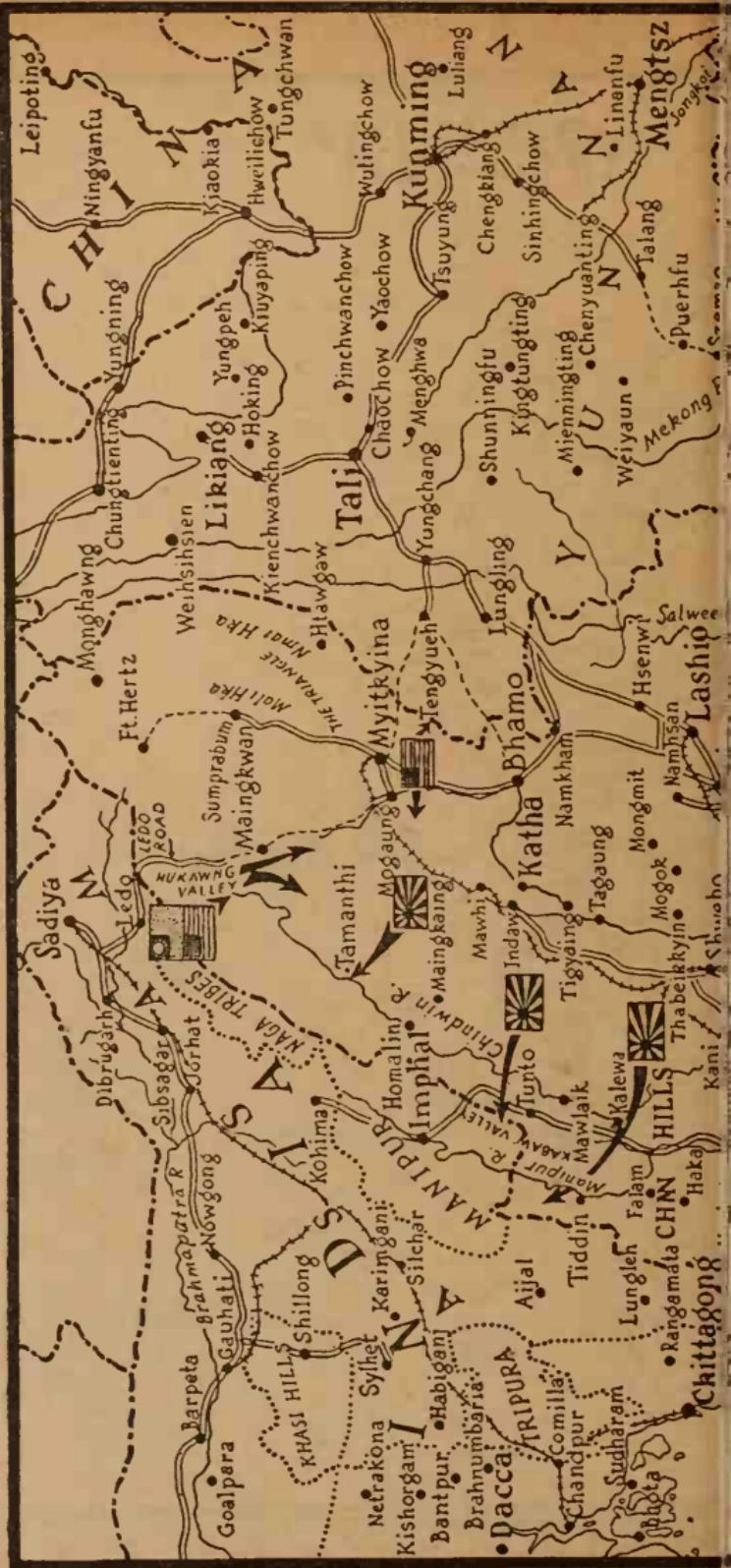
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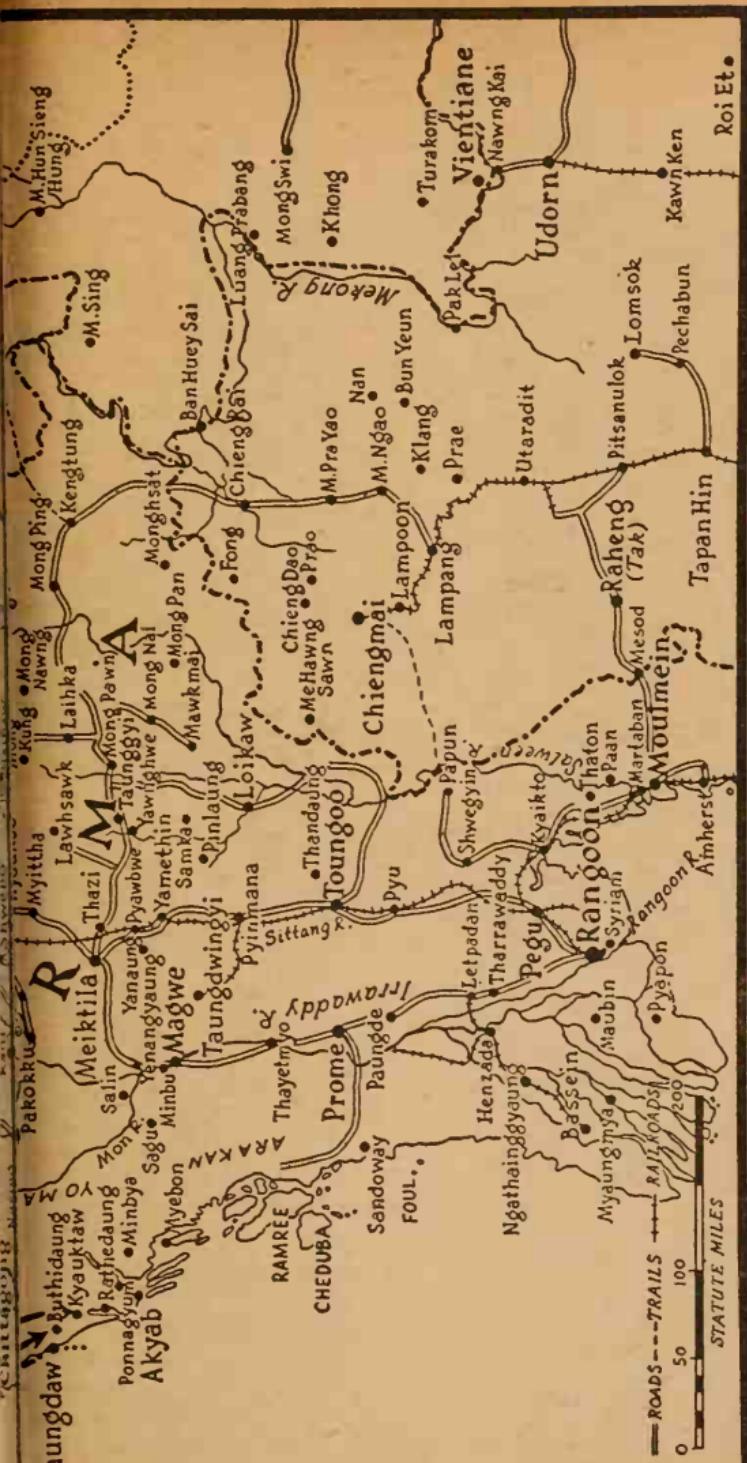


OCEAN



Map 15: The Southwest Pacific, March 1944





Map 16: Operations in Burma, March 1944

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